

The Modern Language Journal

Volume XLIV

NOVEMBER • 1960

Number 7

Contents

| | |
|---|-----|
| NUCLEATION, <i>Kenneth L. Pike</i> | 291 |
| HISPANIC LITERATURE ON TAPE, <i>Francisco Aguilera</i> | 296 |
| MORAVIA'S PROLETARIAN ROMAN INTELLECTUALS, <i>Bonner Mitchell</i> | 303 |
| A ONE-YEAR RUSSIAN READING COURSE, <i>Horace W. Dewey and John Mersereau, Jr.</i> | 307 |
| TEACHING THE DIALECTS IN ARABIC, <i>T. B. Irving</i> | 313 |
| THE SUPERIMPOSITION OF A NATIONAL LANGUAGE, <i>R. Murray Thomas and Winarno Surachmad</i> | 315 |
| WILL THE "NEW KEY" PROVE FLAT?, <i>Ned J. Davison</i> | 322 |
| TRENDS OR OBJECTIVES IN RETROSPECT, <i>Charles E. Young</i> | 324 |
| AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS, <i>José Sánchez</i> | 325 |
| NOTES AND NEWS..... | 330 |
| BOOK REVIEWS | 331 |

(An index for the periodical year is published annually. From its inception in 1929, *The Educational Index* covers the subject-matter of the MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL.)

Published by

The National Federation of Modern
Language Teachers Associations

The Modern Language Journal

STAFF, 1960

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

(Former Managing Editors)

BAYARD QUINCY MORGAN, Stanford University,
California (1926-30).
CHARLES H. HOLZWARTH, University of Texas,
Austin, Texas (1930-34).
HENRY GRATTAN DOYLE, The George Washington
University, Washington, D. C. (1934-38).
EDWIN H. ZEYDEL, University of Cincinnati, Cin-

cinnati, Ohio (1938-43).
HENRI C. OLINGER, New York University, New
York, N. Y. (1944-46).
JULIO DEL TORO, University of Wisconsin, Mil-
waukee, Wis. (1948-54).
CAMILLO P. MERLINO, Boston University, Boston,
Massachusetts (1954-58).

MANAGING EDITOR

J. ALAN PFEFFER, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, New York

ASSISTANT TO THE MANAGING EDITOR

HELEN W. BURRELL, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, New York

ASSISTANT MANAGING EDITORS

(Review and Department Editors)

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS—José Sánchez, University of
Illinois, Chicago, Ill.
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS—Stephen L. Pitcher, St.
Louis Public Schools, St. Louis, Mo.
FRENCH—Cameron C. Gullette, University of Illi-
nois, Urbana, Ill.
GERMAN—Karl-Heinz Planitz, Wabash College,
Crawfordsville, Indiana
HEBREW—Abraham I. Katsh, New York Univer-
sity, New York, N. Y.
ITALIAN—Anthony J. DeVito, Boston University,
Boston, Mass.

LINGUISTICS—Mario Pei, Columbia University,
New York, N. Y.
METHODOLOGY—Evelyn Van Eenenaam, Redford
High School, Detroit, Mich.
PERSONALIA—William Marion Miller, Miami Uni-
versity, Oxford, Ohio.
PORTUGUESE—Benjamin M. Woodbridge, Jr., Uni-
versity of California, Berkeley, Calif.
SLAVIC—Jacob Ornstein, Graduate School, Dept.
of Agr., Washington, D. C.
SPANISH AND SPANISH AMERICAN—Julio del Toro,
University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee, Wis.

(Survey Editors)

FRENCH—Oreste F. Pucciani, University of Cali-
fornia, at Los Angeles
GERMAN—Victor Lange, Princeton University,
Princeton, N. J.
ITALIAN—O. A. Bontempo, College of the City of
New York.

PORTUGUESE—Gerald Moser, The Pennsylvania
State University, University Park, Pa.
SPANISH AND SPANISH AMERICAN—Julio del Toro,
University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee, Wis.
SLAVIC—Peter Rudy, Northwestern University,
Evanston, Ill.

BUSINESS MANAGER

STEPHEN L. PITCHER, 7144 Washington Avenue, St. Louis 30, Missouri

NOTE—The printed order of articles does not imply relative merit. Opinions expressed are not necessarily those of the editorial staff. The interest and the cooperation of all *Journal* contributors are appreciated.

All contributions should conform to the directions contained in the MLA Style Sheet. Unacceptable manuscripts accompanied by postage will be returned.

Nucleation

THE purpose of this article is to illuminate initial problems of language learning by analogy with problems in the formation and growth of crystals.

Two problems interest us: (1) The first few words of a new language may be more difficult to learn than the same number of words later on in the course of study. (2) A person may memorize a large number of vocabulary items and of grammatical rules and paradigms and yet find himself unable to talk with any feeling of ease or facility.

Persons may study a written language for a long time and yet be unable to speak it. Some scholars who have studied dead languages for twenty years have told me, for example, that a feeling of uneasiness has remained with them all this time: whenever a piece of unfamiliar Greek is put before them, they may be a bit disturbed as though they might not be able to read it. One of these scholars told me that after two decades of working on Greek, he for the first time was able to look at a page and have the proper psychological expectation of understanding it—and reacting to it as “a language”—after he had studied modern Greek orally for a while.

Each of these difficulties can be explained by a single technical statement: None of the scholars concerned in each of the difficulties mentioned above had achieved language nucleation.

Nucleation in Physics

When a droplet is condensed out of a gas, or when a crystalline solid is precipitated out of a liquid, nucleation¹ has occurred. Nucleation is involved in the first small clustering of atoms or molecules—say the first two or three dozen—into a structural pattern which will then be extensively duplicated in a repetitive fashion to form a crystal. It is difficult to get these first molecules to clump together. It is for this reason that liquids may be substantially undercooled, below the saturation point, before nucleation in fact occurs. Yet once nucleation has

begun, growth may proceed with great rapidity, so that “In fluid droplets the time of crystallization after nucleation is generally negligible compared with the nucleation period.”²

In gases, in fact, the growth following delayed nucleation may be so fast—inasmuch as “matter is transported rapidly in gases at low pressures”—that the available material in supersaturation decays on to the growing nuclei quickly, “often within a second.”³ “Thus, it appears that the energy barrier opposing nucleation is much greater than that opposing growth.”⁴ The initial formation of starting nuclei is very difficult. The growth of these nuclei into larger units is very rapid and relatively easy and simple.

In contrast to the fact that substantial supercooling is necessary for initial nucleation to occur in a pure liquid or gas, only a very tiny degree of supersaturation is needed if within the gas are suspended dust particles around which nucleation can occur.⁵ Some two hundred years ago Fahrenheit pointed out, similarly, that “the freezing of ordinary bulk liquids generally begins on suspended foreign particles and/or on the walls of the containing vessel.”⁶

If, on the other hand, no impurities are present—as may be the case with small droplets—a liquid may be undercooled “an extraordinary amount relative to bulk liquids”⁷ before nucleation occurs. In a larger bulk of liquid there are certain to be a few stray particles which are preferred nucleation sites for the formation of crystals, and this nucleation then spreads by growth very rapidly throughout all the liquid

¹ For my first interest in physical nucleation I am indebted to Professor Ernst Katz, of the University of Michigan, who presented the concept in an interdisciplinary seminar on the theory of growth at the University of Michigan in 1953.

² David Turnbull, “Phase Changes,” *Solid State Physics*, III (1956), 225–306, esp. p. 282.

³ Turnbull, p. 263.

⁴ Turnbull, p. 256.

⁵ Turnbull, p. 263.

⁶ Turnbull, p. 281.

⁷ Turnbull, p. 282.

even where no impurities might happen to have been. (Other sites at which nucleation occurs, in addition to suspended particles in the liquid or gas, are the walls of the containing vessel itself.)

This phenomenon is hard to understand until one adds to it two other factors: (1) A *perfect* crystal, once formed, does not easily serve as a nucleus for further growth. (2) A crystal in which there are surface imperfections, however, serves for growth. Even more strongly, growth proceeds with great rapidity when a crystal is so distorted that half way through one of the sides a depression has lowered one or more rows of molecules to leave a kind of "step" or terrace halfway through the crystal. Such a dislocation serves as a growing edge to which new molecules may attach themselves. As the molecules stick to this terrace halfway across the crystal, the step front advances like a row of soldiers, pivoting around the center point where the step begins.⁸

Nucleation in Speech

We now suggest that there are certain useful analogies between the nucleation of crystals and language learning:

(1) As it is difficult for the first few molecules to cluster together in physical nucleation, so it is difficult for a person learning a foreign language to learn his first few words. The first words may be more difficult to memorize than later ones.

(2) Some persons have memorized long lists of vocabulary items, and even extensive rules of grammar, without being able to speak the language. One might say that their learning is in a supersaturated condition, without nucleation. That is, though they have many of the elements necessary for a conversation, they cannot in fact handle these. Specifically, they lack the *structure*, the "crystallization"—which gives a characteristic patterning to sentences and conversations.

(3) In lacking a basic structural "seed"—the basic initial conversational ability—it follows by analogy that we would expect them to find it difficult to learn new materials. Once the basic nucleation has begun, conversations utilized in ordinary contexts, further materials would be learned more easily.

(4) Some persons who do not know grammar extensively, nor have extensive vocabulary, nevertheless are able to use the language in speaking more readily than persons more "learned"—they have in fact achieved a nucleation even though it be around an "impurity." From this situation it seems evident that one can get a deeper understanding of the reason why certain current teaching practices are useful, as well as the implication for certain emphases in practical pedagogy: The custom of having early words memorized in a social context—in a "social crystal"—becomes clear. *Language nucleation occurs within the social context.* Language is more than organized verbal sound. It is a structural part of a larger whole—part of life's total behavioral action and structure, intimately linked to social interaction. Greeting forms in a classroom situation, simulated market scenes, and the like, provide the larger structural niches within which added bits of learning fit—whether lexical, grammatical, or social.

The student should be encouraged to *use* the language in such social situations, even though he cannot do it with complete correctness. Nucleation will occur much faster around an inaccurate though functioning dialogue than it will about a completely abstract though correct set of words. (Drill in pattern practice can be used to eliminate such early errors, while leaving the student with the advantages of nucleated behavior.)

(5) Psychological nucleation in reference to language would seem to be accompanied by a feeling of "naturalness" of language use. An individual with psychological language nucleation does not have to be instructed to "think" in the language—he is already thinking in the language the moment he has nucleation. Nucleation here is not at all dependent upon the *extent* of the vocabulary which he has mastered, nor accuracy, but upon the capacity to use a

⁸ This results in various kinds of spiral growth going round and round on top of the crystal. Extensive discussion of these spiral growths is found in Ajit Ram Verma, *Crystal Growth and Dislocations* (New York, 1953). Simple summary of this material, easily read by nonphysicists and amply illustrated, is seen in an article by Robert L. Fullmann, "The Growth of Crystals," *Scientific American*, No. 192 (March, 1955), pp. 74-80.

small set of forms in a natural way automatically in a natural context.

(6) The fact that we emphasize nucleation should not, however, be interpreted to mean that the learning of grammar or the memorization of vocabulary has suddenly become irrelevant. On the contrary, it continues to be important. It is these items, learned, which provide the supersaturated solution out of which the language crystallization can take place. There is a danger, furthermore, that a person getting nucleation without systematic instruction will never grow "pure crystals"—errors will remain in his speech. Thus, the average person who "picks up" a language without formal instruction may never learn the language well. Nucleation, as such, neither guarantees accuracy nor replaces hard work.

(7) On the other hand, the understanding of nucleation emphasizes the need for an oral approach to accompany (or precede) the reading approach. It seems very difficult—perhaps impossible—to get psychological nucleation exclusively from the study of written material. I interpret this to be the explanation of the Greek professor who after twenty years felt uncomfortable with classical Greek, and responded to it as in some psychological sense "real language" only after he had spoken a bit of modern Greek. The modern Greek contributed to him linguistic and psychological nucleation which extensive reading was unable to do. It should be noted, furthermore, that recent attempts⁹ to use more extensive oral components in structural contrastive approaches in the teaching of Latin are presumably successful precisely because these newer techniques are in fact capitalizing to some degree upon psychological nucleation. The difference here is that the achieved nucleation in learning a dead language by oral techniques is an artificial one to the extent that the language is not normally used as a national language—but the artificiality, nevertheless, serves the psychological purpose.

(8) We shall suggest that the "step" in a dislocated crystal is analogous—for certain purposes—to a "slot" in a grammatical structure. In each instance the step provides the "growing edge." By a slot, in grammar, we mean a position in the structure at which substitution

of one element for another may take place, and a point at which new words may easily be introduced to the system. Thus in the sentence *The big boy came home* there is a slot where *boy* may be replaced by *girl*, *man*, etc. New vocabulary is learned most easily not through rote memory alone, but through the hearing or speaking of new words in such grammatical positions. The "substitution tables" of British scholars or the "pattern practice" of the English Language Institute, University of Michigan, etc., take advantage of this fact. Here the successfulness of such drills is not exclusively the result of sheer repetition, but to a very significant degree to the psychological ties between the substituted words and their contexts. Such a linkage is analogous to the sum of "energy" units which are greater and more effective when a molecule can attach itself to a step (with binding energies in two or three directions instead of just one) than when it can attach itself only to the surface of a crystal. The extra linkage points between a word and its linguistic environment within the slot of a structure seem to yield much firmer psychological "energy bonds" than when one attempts to attach this word merely to the background system of words memorized in isolation.

(9) Every language has its characteristic grammatical structures—its characteristic "crystal formations." In our view these are best described as a series of grammatical units (tagmemes¹⁰), each of which is composed of a slot plus a characteristic set of lexical units which are appropriate to it. Thus a "subject-as-actor" tagmeme occurs early in an English declarative sentence, and has as lexical units appropriate to it various kinds of substantive phrases.

(10) A sequence of units comprised of slot-plus-class enter into higher level structures—constructions. Constructions may be of word type, various kinds of phrases, clauses, sentences, or even high-level units such as sonnets or limericks. Initial nucleation, to be effective,

⁹ Note Waldo E. Sweet, *Latin; A Structural Approach* (Ann Arbor, 1957).

¹⁰ For this viewpoint worked out in detail, see my *Language in Relation to a Unified Theory of the Structure of Human Behavior*, I, II, III (Glendale, 1954, 1955, 1960). See Also Robert Longacre, "String Constituent Analysis," *Language*, XXXVI (1960), 63-88.

must give to the speaker control of enough tagmemes and constructions on various levels to allow him to operate within some one social situation. He must have, that is to say, control of tagmemes which begin and end some discourses; of paragraph-opening sentence types; and of sentence types for continuing a description. In addition, he must control enough structures within the sentence to be able to control the substitution of relevant items within the sentence types. Drills designed to help in the mastering of these structures is part of the design of adequate pattern-practice materials.

(11) The structuring is "hierarchical." Language units are not all of the same size, nor all on the same level of relevance. The tagmemes are units within higher structures—the constructions—which in turn serve as units to fill slots on still higher levels of structure, up through the discourse level itself. (This hierarchical arrangement constitutes one of the sharp differences between the language of men and the communication units of—say—dogs or birds.) Here, as for the elements mentioned above, we may draw analogies between language structure and crystal structure. Crystal structure begins with a small initial clump of molecules organized in a "cell." These increase in size or in groupings of larger and larger accretions of cells. The hierarchical structuring of language, however, is much more elaborate than that of a simple crystal, since the high-level units of the language hierarchy are more than repetitions of low-level units. The analog here is more like that of the structure of a single complex organic molecule, in which there are radicals comprised of a number of atoms, which in turn may enter into various kinds of amino acid intermediate groups, and join to make the full organic molecule.

Nucleation in language learning requires drills which involve various levels of the hierarchy. Early drills may teach simple structures; later drills teach expansion of these by optional parts. Effective language lessons, therefore, may seek for initial nucleation by dealing with the obligatory components of the simplest entire discourse, followed by progressive expansion of this learned structure with optional elements at various levels of their hierarchy.

A Tri-Hierarchical View of Language Structure

Some of the complexity of language learning is due to the fact that the units of the language are not exhausted after one has studied the hierarchical components of grammar. In addition to the hierarchical grammatical constructions already referred to, there is present in language a hierarchical structure of phonology as well. Sounds combine into syllables. Syllables combine into rhythm groups related to some kind of accentual system. Rhythm units combine into higher pause groups or breath groups. Such units may in turn combine into rhetorical periods. Language learning, insofar as it is dealing with pronunciation, cannot stop adequately with the teaching of the isolated sounds—nor with words as made up purely of sounds in sequence.

Rhythm units¹¹ may differ in type from language to language. The adequate mimicry of them is extremely important to adequate pronunciation. Some languages, for certain purposes, have an accentual crescendo early in a word; in other languages a crescendo may occur late in a word. Decrescendo from a stressed syllable, furthermore, may be rapid, or slow. The number of syllables in any one such accentual group, or the placement of them in relation to stress, makes enormous differences in the ultimate result. Differences such as these occur from style to style within a single language as well as across language boundaries.

The lexicon, also, is structured in a hierarchical manner. Separate morphemes (in general comprising meaningful minimal parts of words) combine to join into words—as *boy* plus *-s* make up *boys*. Words combine into specific phrases or into idioms such as *to step on the gas*, etc. On a still higher level of the lexical hierarchy an entire jingle may carry a single meaning, as a kind of high-level lexical unit. A counting rhyme used by children may have no useful meaning derived from the particular words of the rhyme itself, for example, even though the

¹¹ For a technical description of some of these materials note my "Abdominal Pulse Types in Some Peruvian Indian Languages," *Language*, 33 (1957), 30-35. See also my *Intonation of American English* (Ann Arbor, 1945), pp. 34-36, for differences between syllable-timed and stressed-timed rhythm patterns.

total impact (i.e., meaning) is that of specifying the person selected to play the leading role in the game.

With hierarchies of grammar, phonology, and lexicon in view, one has a tri-hierarchical¹² approach to language analysis. These hierarchies crisscross and affect one another in various ways. A syllable may comprise an entire morpheme—as in *boy*; or parts of a morpheme—as in *ticket*; or a cluster of morphemes, as in *boys*. Such crisscrossing between the hierarchies is a crucial datum which forces theoretical separation of these hierarchies.

At least these three hierarchies are in language, according to our analysis. Others may later have to be postulated. Crawford,¹³ for example, splits the phonological hierarchy into a "phonotagmemic" hierarchy, embracing the arrangement of sound elements into phonological slot-plus-class units, comprising the specific units, on various levels, filling the phonotagmemic slots.

Nucleation, to be effective, must lead us to use efficiently, rapidly, automatically, and eas-

ily, certain selected units on the various levels of each of these hierarchies. The intricacies of their interrelations is too great for a speaker to handle them by conscious direction on the basis of consciously applied rule. He must, rather, learn to control them automatically on the basis of experience. In nucleation the speaker first integrates all of these kinds of components into at least a small, coherent whole, functioning automatically. This frees the mind to get on with the business of communicating meanings, making choices, and building social rapport.

KENNETH L. PIKE

University of Michigan

Ann Arbor, Michigan

and

Summer Institute of Linguistics

Santa Ana, California

¹² For further detail see my "Language as Particle, Wave, and Field," *The Texas Quarterly*, II (Summer, 1959), pp. 37-54.

¹³ See John C. Crawford, "Pike's Tagmemic Model Applied to Totontepec Mixe Phonology," unpublished dissertation (Michigan, 1960).

* * *

HELEN W. BURRELL

1902-1960

The *Modern Language Journal* notes with deep regret the passing of the assistant to the managing editor, Dr. Helen W. Burrell, at one time head of the Department of Romance Languages at Howard University and recently associate professor of French at the University of Buffalo.

... Und hinter ihr, in wesen losem Scheine,
Liegt, was alle bändigt, das Gemeine.

* * *

Hispanic Literature on Tape*

SHORTLY after recording some of her poems at the Library of Congress, nine years ago, Gabriela Mistral expressed in these words her enthusiastic support of the Library's program for recording poets from the Hispanic world: "I am very much interested in this work of the Library of Congress. Poetry hushed and inert in books fades away or dies. The air, not the printed word, is its natural home. Poetry should not suffer the fate of a stuffed bird. Recordings serve it well."

The celebrated poetess consented to do this recording even in the face of a busy three-day stay in Washington which included the bestowal upon her of the Serra Award by the Academy of American Franciscan History and the transaction of official business in connection with her transfer from Mexico to Italy as a Chilean consular officer.

Ever since 1945, when she was awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature, the Hispanic Foundation in the Library of Congress had been looking forward to an opportunity to record her voice for posterity. Gabriela's graciousness in accepting the invitation to do a chore not contemplated in her pressing schedule insured for future generations (as was dramatically illustrated at the time of her death in January 1957) the enduring presence of her own voice interpreting some of her poems. That recording of the poetess is the only one extant, and is all the more remarkable when we consider that Gabriela was not known to have read her poetry in public—not even when she, an unknown school teacher, was expected to do so at a ceremony in 1914 that catapulted her into fame as the winner of an unprecedented national poetry prize.

Indicating that she was aware of the fortuitous circumstances that had made possible her recording at the Library on December 14, 1950, Gabriela added the following remark: "But this effort to liberate poetry from the limitations of the printed word must be comprehensively undertaken. Let us bear in mind that not

all of us have the opportunity to pass through Washington. The best of our poets do not leave their Latin American homes. . . ."

The advice implied in the warning quoted above did not escape the Library's attention. It was realized that haphazard recording could not lay the foundations for a well-balanced collection. In the seven years that had elapsed between the first poet's recording and Gabriela's visit the Hispanic Foundation had succeeded in assembling the readings of only eight poets. So limited a group could not properly constitute a "collection," much less an "archive," notwithstanding the importance of each individual: Andrés Eloy Blanco from Venezuela; Pablo de Rokha, Winett de Rokha, and Gabriela Mistral from Chile; Jaime Torres Bodet from Mexico; and Eduardo Marquina, Pedro Salinas, and Juan Ramón Jiménez from Spain. It is saddening to reflect that all but two of them are no longer alive.¹ However, it is a consolation to know that owing to their visits to the Library their mortal voices have not faded into utter silence.

In the years 1951-54 32 poets were added. They represented not only the Spanish language but Catalan, French, and Portuguese. Twenty-four of these additions were recorded abroad (in Madrid, Barcelona, Port-au-Prince, Rio de Janeiro, and Caracas) with the cooperation of United States public affairs and cultural officers.²

There followed a period of relative inactivity in the development of the collection, owing partly to the need for determining the role of an archive of this type in the Library's program of Hispanic acquisitions and services as a whole. A careful examination of the problem, which

* Reprinted from *The Library of Congress Quarterly Journal of Current Acquisitions*, XVII, 84-92.

¹ Marquina died in 1946; Salinas in 1951; Winett de Rokha in 1951; Blanco in 1955; Mistral in 1957; and Jiménez in 1958.

² Francisco Aguilera, "Iberian and Latin American Poetry on Records," *QJCA*, XIV (February 1957), 51-54.

included canvassing expert opinion within and outside the Library, led to the conclusion that a project with well-defined scope would be desirable. The materials accumulated since 1943 were acknowledged to be unique and of the highest quality, as evidenced by the recordings of the two Hispanic Nobel laureates of our day, Gabriela Mistral (recorded five years after she won the prize) and Juan Ramón Jiménez (recorded seven years before he received the same international distinction). Scholars, creative writers, librarians, educators, publishers, and other users of the Library's materials were unequivocal in their high regard for the incipient collection and its possibilities.

THE 1958 PILOT PROJECT

In 1958 the Library evolved a viable project for a well-integrated collection of Hispanic literature on tape. The term "literature" was selected so as to include writings in either verse or prose noteworthy for their aesthetic value. With the aid of a generous grant from the Rockefeller Foundation, a pilot project was undertaken in the fall of the same year.

The salient feature of the project was that the Library commission a member of its staff (in this instance, the writer) to visit four countries of South America (Argentina, Chile, Peru, and Uruguay) for the purpose of obtaining recordings on magnetic tape of selections read expressly for the Library by outstanding literary figures. These readings (as many as could reasonably be obtained in a three-month period) were to be incorporated in the permanent collections as a contribution to the establishment of an Archive of Hispanic Literature on Tape.

The decision to send a representative abroad seemed to solve the problem suggested by Gabriela Mistral's reminder that not all of the poets have the opportunity to pass through Washington.

In the three-month period, 68 writers were recorded. Their distribution was as follows: Argentina, 20; Chile, 11; Peru, 21; and Uruguay, 16. Seven of the writers met in Argentina are not Argentines: two Peruvians, one Cuban, one Dominican, one Guatemalan, one Paraguayan, and one Spaniard. One of the writers recorded in Montevideo is a Salvadorean.

The criteria of selection were as objective as it is possible in this realm of activity. They were primarily based on the recognition accorded to each writer (poet, novelist, short-story writer, or essayist) at home and abroad by critics, professors of literature, publishers, translators, textbook editors, award committees, motion picture directors, and the like. Experience gained by the Hispanic Foundation indicated that it was best to consider first those authors whose printed works are acquired comprehensively in response to scholarly demand. The selection of writers reflected the professional responsibilities of subject specialists, acquisition officers, and bibliographers. The Library's representative availed himself of the vast amount of information collected in the Hispanic Foundation and supplemented it in the field with factual reports from various sources.

The results accomplished would not have been possible without the unreserved cooperation of the writers themselves, as a group, or groups, and as individuals. Since no honorarium was offered to any participant, success depended on the writers' recognition of the program's soundness and merit. The criteria of selection and the Library's observance of literary rights were explained to each participant, to each cooperating institution, and to inquiring reporters. The program had a favorable press; influential persons assisted the Library's agent in locating writers and solving problems of transportation; literary societies, national libraries, and university departments lent their moral support and furnished office space and telephone-answering services; local recording studios offered their facilities without charge. The project became literally a cooperative undertaking.

One powerful reason for such enthusiastic response was a fact which was made widely known by personal contacts and through the press and radio, that the Library had recorded 40 poets of distinction prior to 1958. Names such as Mistral and Jiménez are symbols with well-defined meaning in Hispanic America. Literary people were deeply impressed when they listened to a longplaying record, not yet ready for distribution at the time, containing the late Pedro Salinas' reading of *El Contemplado* (from the Library's pre-1958 collection,

published under the joint auspices of the Institute of Puerto Rican Culture and the Library of Congress).³

We have so far mentioned the assistance rendered by the nationals of each country visited. To it must be added—and it was a vitally important addition—the cooperation of the United States Information Agency. In each capital this agency helped the project with its facilities and prestige to the extent it was needed. An indication of this is the fact that 36 of the 68 tape recordings brought back to Washington were made in the USIA studios functioning in the respective American embassies.

The recording was done in local studios, at no cost to the project—in Argentina, at Municipal Radio and the USIA; in Chile, at the Institute of Musical Extension of the University of Chile, and the USIA; in Peru, at National Radio in Lima, the Peruvian-United States Cultural Institute in Cuzco, and the USIA; and in Uruguay, at the Faculty of Humanities of the University of the Republic, the state-owned SODRE, Radio El Espectador, and the USIA.

One non-Hispanic language was added to the collection during the trip to South America. This was Quechua, the official language of the late Inca Empire. A Peruvian poet who has revitalized Quechua as a literary instrument recorded several poems he has written in the original Indian language and in a splendid Spanish translation. A special trip to Cuzco was made for this purpose. When this recording is made available to the public, Dr. Andrés Alencastre, well-known as a Quechua scholar but hardly known as a poet even in Peru, may take his place as a literary giant.

PRESENT HOLDINGS AND FUTURE PLANS

Prior to 1958 the Library had recorded forty poets, the collection then being devoted exclusively to poetry. The languages represented were Spanish, Portuguese, Catalan (as spoken in Catalonia and kindred linguistic areas), and French (from Haiti). As a consequence of the joint Hispanic Foundation-Rockefeller Foundation pilot project the number of writers rose to a total of 108, prose fiction and essays were added to poetry and an American Indian lan-

guage with a formal literary tradition joined the Indo-European languages.

The 1958 trip increased the holdings as follows: Argentine writers, from one to 14; Chilean, from four to 15; Peruvian, from zero to 23; and Uruguayan, from zero to 15. The non-Argentines recorded in Buenos Aires and the one Salvadorean recorded in Montevideo increased the archive thus: Cuba, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, and Paraguay, from zero to one; and Spain from 17 to 18.

As for the areas not listed above, the situation at present is: six are not represented at all (Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Panama, Portugal, and Puerto Rico); four are represented by one writer each (Costa Rica, Honduras, Mexico, and Nicaragua); two by four writers each (Brazil and Venezuela); and one by seven writers (Haiti). The Portuguese language, with four recordings, lags behind Spanish (87), Catalan (9) and French (7). Of Quechua there is one.⁴

From the above it can be seen that the vast Hispanic world is still far from being adequately represented in the archive. However, with the continued cooperation of the Rockefeller Foundation the Library is fortunate to be in a position to plan two more recording expeditions, one in 1960 and the other before July 1961. At the same time, some work to fill gaps in the collection can be done at the Library, whenever occasion arises that Washington is visited by a leading writer from the Iberian Peninsula or Latin America.

³ Pedro Salinas, *El Contemplado*. Poema leído por su autor el 24 diciembre de 1946 en la Biblioteca del Congreso (Washington, D. C.) para el Archivo de Poesía de la Fundación Hispánica en la misma institución. Edición patrocinada por el Instituto de Cultura Puertorriqueña y la Biblioteca del Congreso.

A twelve-inch longplaying disc accompanied by a 43-page text. The text, with introduction and notes by Juan Marichal and illustrations by Carlos Marichal, was published in 1959 by the Instituto de Cultura Puertorriqueña. The disc and booklet, in a limited edition, are distributed by the Instituto de Cultura Puertorriqueña, Apartado 4148, San Juan, Puerto Rico.

⁴ Two more recordings were made in Washington in 1958-59, bringing the total as of now to 110. The speakers were Guillermo de Torre and Salvador de Madariaga, both Spaniards living respectively in Argentina and England.

Parallel with continuing acquisitions such as those envisaged in the next two years, special attention will be given to meeting the growing demands from scholars, educators, and lovers of Hispanic literature in general. Requests come in regularly from individuals and institutions (particularly, in the latter case, from the foreign language institutes functioning under the National Defense Education Act) for the loan or sale of tapes in the collection. To meet this demand it will be necessary to enter into arrangements with the writers themselves or, in the case of those no longer alive, with their executors. It is expected also that the example set by the Institute of Puerto Rican Literature and the Library of Congress when they issued a long-playing disc of the late Pedro Salinas' *El Contemplado* may be followed by other nonprofit organizations. Similarly, there is hope that commercial enterprises may follow the steps of the New York publisher who contracted with Gabriela Mistral and Jiménez before their deaths for the eventual publication of their recordings in disc form.

THE RECENT ACQUISITIONS

The following summary of the 68 recordings added in the fall of 1958 to the Archive of Hispanic Literature on Tape offers basic information on each of the participants.⁵

Recorded in Argentina

Thirteen Argentines and seven writers of other nationalities participated. Unless otherwise indicated the nationality is Argentine.

ENRIQUE BANCHS (born in 1888). Poet; required reading in United States colleges. His undisputed place among the principal Argentine poets of this century rests on four books published between 1907 and 1911. Since then he has remained silent; time and again he has refused offers to bring out new editions of his works. His willingness to record for the Library agreeably surprised Buenos Aires literary circles. This recording is a priceless document.

JORGE LUIS BORGES (1899). Poet, short-story writer, essayist. Director of the National Library, professor of northern European literatures at the University of Buenos Aires. One of the world's great living writers; required read-

ing in United States colleges. His short stories are being widely translated in Europe and the United States. He read a score of poems written between 1923 and 1958.

ARTURO CAPDEVILA (1889). Poet, essayist, university professor. Recipient of the National Prize for Literature in 1920 and 1922. Handicapped by failing eyesight, he contented himself with giving an informal account of his half-century of poetry writing. His wife read a cross section of his poems.

LUIS L. FRANCO (1898). Poet, essayist. Recipient of the National Prize for Literature, 1941. He read poems inspired by nature and man in the Catamarca region.

MANUEL GÁLVEZ (1882). Novelist, essayist. Corresponding member of the Spanish Academy. Recipient of the National Prize for Literature, 1932. Twice formally proposed for the Nobel Prize. Required reading in United States colleges; one of the most widely translated Latin American novelists. He read excerpts from a novel, a biographical essay, and poems (some still unpublished).

ROBERTO F. GIUSTI (1887). Critic, essayist, university professor, and cofounder of the literary monthly *Nosotros* (1907-43). He read passages from his memoirs.

ENRIQUE LARRETA (1875). Novelist, poet, diplomat. Author of *La gloria de Don Ramiro*, considered one of the best historical novels in the language; required reading in United States colleges; widely translated. He read the opening pages of this novel and a dozen sonnets.

EDUARDO MALLEA (1903). Novelist, essayist, editor of the literary supplement of *La Nación*. Recipient of the "Gran Premio de Honor" of the Sociedad Argentina de Escritores (SADE), 1946. Widely translated; required reading in United States colleges. He read a short story, excerpts from one of his novels, and an autobiographical sketch.

RICARDO E. MOLINARI (1898). Poet, counselor in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. National Poetry Prize, 1958.

CONRADO NALÉ ROXLO (1898). Poet, short-story writer, playwright. Recipient of the National Drama Prize, 1941. Required reading

⁵ For data on the poets represented in the collection before 1958 see *QJCA*, XIV (February 1957), 51-54.

in United States colleges. He read selected poems and a short story.

VICTORIA OCAMPO (1891). Essayist, founder and editor of the literary journal *Sur*, published since 1931. "Gran Premio de Honor" of SADE, 1950. One of the most influential promoters and supporters of literary activity in the history of Argentina. She read autobiographical selections.

ALFREDO L. PALACIOS (1880). Jurist, essayist, orator. Formerly dean of law at Buenos Aires and La Plata national universities and rector of the latter; senator, ambassador to Uruguay. He read an especially prepared "message to the university students of Latin America."

HORACIO E. RATTI (1908). Poet, critic, director of the Buenos Aires Municipal Radio. Former president of SADE. He read a selection of published and unpublished poems.

XAVIER ABRIL, Peruvian (1905). Poet, cultural attaché at large for the River Plate countries.

RAFAEL ALBERTI, Spaniard (1902). With Jiménez and Salinas gone, he is probably Spain's most celebrated poet. Buenos Aires has been his home since 1940. He read a 30-minute selection of poems from one of his most admired books, *Sobre los ángeles*, to be issued in 1959 in a deluxe Buenos Aires edition honoring the thirtieth anniversary of its publication in Madrid.

MIGUEL ANGEL ASTURIAS, Guatemalan (1899). Novelist, poet, diplomat. His novels and verse have been translated into French. He read selected poems, including some "Indian messages" published in 1958 in Paris in a bilingual edition.

MANUEL DEL CABRAL, Dominican (1907). Poet widely known in Latin America and Europe.

NICOLÁS GUILLÉN, Cuban (1904). Spanish America's leading exponent of poetry on Afro-Antillean themes. Required reading in United States colleges; widely translated.

ALBERTO HIDALGO, Peruvian (1897). Immensely gifted poet and stormy polemicist. He read selected poems.

AUGUSTO ROA BASTOS, Paraguayan (1917). Novelist and short-story writer. He was about to depart for Paraguay to assist an Argentine motion picture company in the filming of a

bestseller of his which has for its background the war between Paraguay and the Triple Alliance. He read a short story.

Recorded in Chile

All participants were Chileans.

JULIO BARRENECHEA (1910). Poet, former ambassador to Colombia. An edition of his complete poems was published at Quito in 1958 by the Casa de la Cultura Ecuatoriana.

EDUARDO BARRIOS (1884). Novelist, director of the National Library, former Minister of Education. Recipient of the National Prize for Literature, 1946. Required reading in United States colleges. He read excerpts from his widely translated novel, *El hermano asno*.

MARTA BRUNET (1901). Short-story writer, retired consular officer. Required reading in United States colleges. She talked extemporaneously on the art of short-story writing.

ANGEL CRUCHAGA SANTA MARÍA (1893). Poet. Recipient of the National Prize for Literature, 1948. To solve the problem presented by his failing eyesight, he discussed his various books; and his wife read his most characteristic poems.

HERNÁN DÍAZ ARRIETA, equally known by his pseudonym "Alone" (1891). Critic, essayist. Chile's most influential professional book reviewer during the past 40 years. He was given a grant by the Rockefeller Foundation in 1958 to edit the unpublished poetry of the late Gabriela Mistral. Recipient of the National Prize for Literature, 1959. He read an autobiographical sketch especially prepared for this occasion, and an essay on Gabriela Mistral.

DIEGO DUBLÉ URRUTIA (1877). Poet, retired diplomat. Early in the century he attained renown with two books published in 1898 and 1903. For several decades he lived abroad as a foreign service officer, disappearing from the literary scene. Back in Chile, he gathered into a single volume his two early books and a few additional poems written during 1905-52, published it in 1953, and had a resounding success, all the more dramatic since many people were not aware that he was still living. Finally in 1958 he was awarded the National Prize for Literature. He recorded a selection of poems with extemporaneous comments.

JOAQUÍN EDWARDS BELLO (1888). Novelist, newspaper columnist. Recipient of the Na-

tional Prize for Literature, 1943. He read an especially prepared paper on his native city, Valparaíso, and fragments from his novel *El roto*, a Chilean classic.

JOSÉ SANTOS GONZÁLEZ VERA (1897). Novelist, essayist, retired Secretary General of the Chilean Commission on Intellectual Cooperation. Recipient of the National Prize for Literature, 1950. He read excerpts from an essay on the writer's experience.

MANUEL ROJAS (1896). Novelist, short-story writer, retired Director of the University of Chile Press. Recipient of the National Prize for Literature, 1957. Widely translated; required reading in United States colleges. He read two short stories.

BENJAMÍN SUBERCASEAX (1902). Novelist, essayist, Director of the Department of Cultural Relations in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Three of his books have been translated into English. He read selected passages from his works.

JUVENCIO VALLE (1907). Poet, division chief in the National Library. He read selected poems inspired by his native South.

Recorded in Peru

All participants were Peruvians.

MARTÍN ADÁN (1908). Poet. He has lived as a recluse for the last ten years owing to failing health. Literary inactivity has not prevented the growth of his prestige and influence as a significant force. Literary circles were elated over his acceptance of the invitation to record some of his poems.

ANDRÉS ALENCASTRE (1910). Poet, professor of Quechua language and literature at the University of Cuzco. "The most important exponent of Quechua literature since the eighteenth century." He recorded several of his poems in the official language of the Inca Empire, followed by his own Spanish translations and with musical interludes played by him on the traditional Indian flute called *quena*.

LUIS FELIPE ANGELL, pseudonym "Sofocleto" (about 1920). A celebrated humorist whose column in a leading Lima paper is a unique feature in Peruvian journalism. Some time after he recorded a witty essay purporting to be a philosophical discussion he won a sizable prize in Lima for the best unpublished Peruvian novel.

JORGE BASADRE (1903). Historian, essayist, Minister of Education, former Director of the Department of Cultural Affairs in the Pan American Union. He read a chapter from his scholarly and engagingly written study about the Count of Lemos.

JOSÉ LUIS BUSTAMANTE I RIVERO (1894). Essayist, poet, jurist, former President of Peru. He read a prose description of Peru which has become a classic, as well as a few poems.

MARIANO IBERICO (1892). Dean of Peruvian philosophy, essayist. He read a series of prose sketches depicting the Peruvian sierra.

ENRIQUE LÓPEZ ALBÚJAR (1872). Novelist, short-story writer, retired judge. The undisputed father of Indianist prose fiction as practiced in the insurgent thirties and forties. Required reading in United States colleges. He read one of his best-known stories.

RAÚL PORRAS BARRENECHEA (1897). Historian, essayist, Minister of Foreign Affairs. He read an essay on the chroniclers of colonial Peru.

AMALIA PUGA DE LOSADA (1866). Poet and short-story writer. Early in the century a selection of her poems was published in Spain in a publisher's series of "best works in the Spanish language." She read both prose and verse.

FERNANDO ROMERO (1904). Short-story writer, Rector of the University of Ayacucho. He first became noted for his stories of life in the Amazonian region of Peru. He read a story from a book recently published in Chile, dealing with the life of South Americans in New York City.

LUIS ALBERTO SÁNCHEZ (1900). Literary historian, essayist, former Rector of the University of San Marcos, professorial lecturer at American and European universities. He read selections from a book then in press in Buenos Aires.

ALBERTO URETA (1885). Poet, one of the great figures of the Modernist movement in the history of Spanish American literature, a lone survivor of a memorable period. Required reading in United States colleges. He read selected poems.

A brilliant group of nine poets, five of whom have won important prizes, also recorded for the Library's Archive: César Miró (1907), Julio Garrido Malaver (1909), Luis Nieto (1910), Juan Ríos (1914), Javier Sologuren

(1921), Sebastián Salazar Bondy (1924), Alejandro Romualdo (1926), Washington Delgado (1927), and Alberto Escobar (1929).

Recorded in Uruguay

All participants but one were Uruguayans.

VICENTE BASSO MAGLIO (1889). Poet, editor of *El Espectador*. In his thirties and early forties he made a significant contribution to the important body of Uruguayan post-Modernist poetry.

ESTHER DE CÁCERES (1903). Poet, physician, professor of literature at the University of the Republic. Recipient of prizes from the Ministry of Education, 1933, 1939, 1941.

ENRIQUE CASARAVILLA LEMOS (about 1890). Poet. For very many years withdrawn from virtually all social contacts, he was gracious enough to accept the Library's invitation. Unpublished verse of the last decade was represented in the selection he recorded with consummate art.

EMILIO FRUGONI (1880). Poet, law professor, political leader. The revered author of civic and social poems of enduring esthetic quality, he selected compositions from most of his books and some that have appeared lately in literary periodicals.

PEDRO LEANDRO IPUCHE (1889). Poet, short-story writer. One of the leaders of the movement called Nativism in Uruguay. He read some poems and brief stories.

ADOLFO MONTIEL BALLESTEROS (1888). Short-story writer, novelist. One of the masters of *criollismo* in fiction, he possesses a salutary dose of humor. Recipient of folklore and literature prizes from the Ministry of Education. Noted also for his contribution to juvenile literature. He read selected stories.

EMILIO ORIBE (1893). Poet, professor of philosophy, university dean. He typifies the reaction against the exoticism of the belated Modernists and has developed a philosophical

brand of poetry that has found no imitators.

CARLOS SABAT ERCASTY (1887). Poet, professor of literature. Recipient of the Ministry of Education prize, 1930. A major figure of Spanish-American poetry.

FERNÁN SILVA VALDÉS (1887). Poet, university professor. Recognized as the highest exponent of Nativism in poetry. A radio headliner as a reciter of his own poems. Author of the lyrics of popular songs widely known through records. Recipient of the National Poetry Prize, 1925. Translated into several languages. He read some of his most memorable compositions, making illuminating comments.

JUSTINO ZAVALA MUNIZ (1898). Novelist, member of the National Council of Government. Famous for his historical novels portraying the period of armed conflict among political chieftains in the late nineteenth century. He read a chapter from *Crónica de la reja*.

ALBERT ZUM FELDE (1890). Literary historian, essayist, former Director of the National Library. Professorial lecturer in various American countries. Author of a literary history of Uruguay (1930) which stands as the most noteworthy achievement in the field and of a similar work covering the whole of Spanish America, the second volume of which came out in Mexico in 1959. He read a chapter from the first volume of the latter work.

CLARIBEL ALEGRÍA, native of El Salvador (1926). Poet. Has published three warmly acclaimed books of verse in Mexico and Chile.

Four "younger" Uruguayan poets were recorded, representing new trends in a country noted for some of the highest achievements in Spanish-American poetry. They are distinct personalities whose poetic genius is matched by their perseverance and skill. They are: Roberto Ibáñez (1907), winner of the National Poetry Prize in 1939; and Sara de Ibáñez, Clara Silva, and Juan Cunha (all three born about 1910).

FRANCISCO AGUILERA

The Hispanic Foundation

* * *

The Linguistic Reporter

The Linguistic Reporter is a bi-monthly newsletter published by the Center for Applied Linguistics of the Modern Language Association of America. There is no subscription charge. All communications should be addressed to (Miss)

Nora M. Walker, Center for Applied Linguistics, Suite 1101, Dupont Circle Building, 1345 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

Moravia's Proletarian Roman Intellectuals

WHILE Alberto Moravia's post-war preference for proletarian Roman settings and characters is well known, it does not seem to have been recognized that *La Romana* and the two volumes of *Racconti romani* represent not just a new predilection in subject matter but also a rather daring narrative experiment. This experiment lies in the creation of a novel sort of fictitious narrator. The literary practice of abandoning more or less remote anonymity for the nearer vantage point of a personage in the story is not, of course, new, though narrators' connections with the events which they have to relate have often been, as in *Madame Bovary*, so slight as to make the whole device rather insignificant. First person narrators, such as Proust's "Marcel," have normally been, too, people of considerable literary education. The narration of stories about quite uneducated people has nearly always been done impersonally, as in the novels of Dickens or Zola. Moravia has chosen instead to have his Roman works presented by characters belonging to the lower-class, unlettered milieu in which the action is set. He has not adopted this approach, in the main, for the sake of picturesqueness or of humorous effect but in search of a new mode of expression.

Adriana, the heroine of *La Romana* (Milano, 1955), has a series of highly dramatic and socially significant experiences to recount. The course of her early life is testimony to the perennial injustices of society and even, in parts, to the specific evils of fascism. She is hardly aware of these larger implications of her experiences and is loath to think about such things, which she finds incomprehensible and considers to be irrelevant to her destiny (p. 347). In the measure that this considerable part of interpretation is left to a more sophisticated reader, the effect of Adriana's narration is ironic. There is, however, a domain in which her understanding and even her ability to express herself are not only equal to those of her readers but of a truly superior quality. When

she is speculating about her own motives and reactions or about those of other characters—about how people think and feel—she is, for all her lack of a literary education, extraordinarily subtle and eloquent. There can be no question of narrative irony in these passages, which resemble nothing so much, in tone and content, as refined novels of psychoanalysis. One may take as an example the very passage in which she describes her indifference to the "larger" issues mentioned above:

La politica, come del resto, molte altre cose a cui gli uomini sembrano attribuire tanta importanza, giungeva a me da un mondo superiore e sconosciuto, più fioca e incomprendibile di quanto giunga la luce del giorno a quei semplici animaletti, in fondo ai loro recessi sottomarini. (p. 347)

This combination of a quasi-literary construction and syntax with humble or homely imaginative expression is characteristic of Adriana's descriptions of what she understands well. Critics would be begging the question to object that the author speaks through his creation's mouth in these sections after having allowed her to behave more naturally in others. The presence of a personal narrator who is also the protagonist quite resolves the problem of aesthetic distance, and all facets of such a narrator's personality—though they be much more disparate than those in question—are bound to join together in a unified effect. Adriana's basic attitudes are moreover consistent throughout, and her narrative language, as distinguished from that of her reported conversations, is always the result of a deliberate compromise between the reality of popular speech and the requirements of literature. It is true, however, that in this work the heroine's competence in psychology fades beside the gravity of the matters which she does not understand. In his next books the author gives a similar sort of competence on the part of ordinary Romans main billing, and the expressive possibilities of his narrative innovation become more evident.

The *Racconti romani* (Milano, 1954) and the

Nuovi racconti romani (Milano, 1959) contain 120 quite short stories, all relating adventures of modest citizens of Rome in the postwar period. Some exceptional ones have to do with particularly strange or comical happenings, and a few others raise serious moral or philosophical questions. Thus "La Parola Mamma" (I) presents the amusing misfortunes of a petty crook and "Negriero" (II) describes the difficult life of a professional beggar. "Non sanno parlare" (II) brings into apparent conflict the virtue of charity and one's duty toward his own family, while in the conclusion of another, "Caterina" (I), one may even discern a personal revelation of the absurd after the existentialist model. Most of the stories are built, however, upon apparently unexceptional occurrences and have no evident grave implications. Although the tales may owe a good part of their popular success to the fact that they are Roman and that they contain numerous references to familiar localities or aspects of Roman life, there is hardly any question, either, of local color. If characters do occasionally show their pride at being citizens in the SPQR tradition, they are not systematically presented as persons of a certain race or culture. Local color, suspense, social commentary, and moral philosophy are all of secondary importance, for the dominant impression left by the *Racconti* is one of constant, detailed speculation about human nature. As in *La Romana*, personal relations are the favorite subject of analysis, but here there is much less attention to passion and to love than to calmer relationships, to friendship and plain compatibility. This sort of material is better suited to the kind of detached and reasonable reflection in which the protagonists like to indulge.

Because the narrators' attention is concentrated upon matters in which they are competent and about which they can reason dispassionately, there are few examples of the kind of ironical presentation, noted for parts of *La Romana*, which invites one to have recourse to his own superior education or understanding, to "read between the lines." A noteworthy exception is furnished by the tale appropriately entitled "Non approfondire" (I), in which a man wonders naïvely why his wife has left him while readers understand quickly that the

reason is his vanity. The great majority of narrators seem to have been chosen neither for the eccentricities of their own thinking nor for the exceptional interest of the things they have to tell about but for their unusual good faith and shrewdness in interpreting everyday experiences. This good faith and shrewdness are carefully established by virtue of certain stylistic mannerisms.

Most evident among these mannerisms are those meant to assure a frank and intimate tone in the narration. The first sentences of stories often seem to come in the middle of a conversation between old friends and may even feign to presuppose on the reader's part some prior knowledge of the material about to be presented, as though there remained only to explain the exact manner in which things had occurred. These two beginnings may be taken as examples:

Era più forte di me, ogni volta che conoscevo una ragazza, la presentavo a Rigamonti e lui, regolarmente, me la soffiava. (I, p. 105)

Fate caso alle età: fino a trentacinque anni ero vissuto con mia sorella Elvira che ne aveva trentotto . . . (II, p. 53)

It is as though the narrator had already communicated the essential facts and were now about to proceed, perhaps at the request of his listener, to a fuller presentation of the story. Midway through their accounts, narrators often address their listeners directly, saying "E notate," "Avete visto," or, most characteristically, "Vedete un po' com'è fatto l'uomo." They are forever appealing, one man of the world to another, to his mundane knowledge of human types and habits: "[era] uno di quei piccoli che si vendicano della piccolezza spadroneggiando e facendo i prepotenti (II, p. 480). The confidential remark "Si sa come vanno queste cose" is ubiquitous, while shifts and swerves of the narration are habitually punctuated with such informal, easygoing expressions as "basta" and "insomma."

One of the narrators, a waiter, states, in terms which might apply to nearly all of them, that he is of an observant spirit, having found that life is as amusing as a show (II, pp. 449-450). All of them reveal the intensity of their interest in psychology inadvertently, as it were, by frequent indulgence in *sententiae* and citing of proverbs. These formulas are often found at

the beginning of a story, where they serve to indicate the precise area of its psychological interest:

Quando in una compagnia di amici entra una donna, allora potete dire senz'altro che la compagnia sta per sciogliersi e ognuno sta per andarsene per conto suo (I, p. 147)

There may be instead a rhetorical question which serves the same purpose: "Se ne dicono tante sull'amicizia, ma, insomma, che vuol dire essere amico? (I, p. 282)." In the first sentences of other tales, e.g. "Quant'è caro" (II), a narrator warns that the facts which he has to recount will seem to contradict a proverb. The main body of the narration also abounds with general statements about human nature. Some of the original ones are rich with imagery:

Eh, è più difficile assai non essere invidioso dell'amico fortunato che generoso con quello sfortunato. E l'invidia è come una palla di gomma che più la spingi sotto e più ti torna a galla e non c'è verso di ricacciarla nel fondo. (II, p. 179)

This image, like most of the psychological ones, is essentially intellectual, in that it means to explain a mental process by analogy with a physical one.

Being scrupulously objective—albeit fascinated—observers, the narrators are anxious to present all germane details for the reader's and, it seems, their own, reflection. Sharing Balzac's celebrated opinion that temperament and mood are reflected in one's exterior appearance, they present a sort of psychophysical description of principal characters, recalling, for example: "Notai che ci aveva lo sguardo torbido e il viso assorto e che rosicchiava l'unghia dell'indici: segno in lui di preoccupazione (II, p. 292)." When they do not report conversations directly, they are careful nevertheless to do so in such a manner as to evoke exact words and expressions:

Poi, all'uscita, mi spiegò che lei mi aveva notato da un pezzo, dal giorno si può dire che era stata assunta all'albergo. Che da allora non aveva fatto che pensare a me. Che adesso sperava che le volessi un po' di bene, perché lei, senza di me, non poteva vivere. (I, p. 82)

If the phrase "mi spiegò che" and its subordinate "che" were removed, this passage would be a fine example of the realistic narrative procedure called "free indirect style," whose first systematic use in literature is often attributed

to Flaubert but which, as any observant listener knows, is adopted instinctively by all good oral story-tellers. Moravia's narrators also faithfully report their own moods and reactions and sometimes even puzzle as objectively over the possible motives of their own actions as over the deeds of others.

It is not unusual, in fact, for protagonists to confess themselves unable to understand their own behavior or that of other characters. Their accounts are sprinkled with the expressions "Non so perché" and "Chissà perché." While such frankness and modesty work, of course, to increase verisimilitude, they also testify to the seriousness and to the nearly professional competence of the narrators' speculations. Their failures to understand do not normally appear as signs of naïveté but rather as evidence of a real, if limited, sophistication. These unlettered Romans have become sophisticated about human nature through their habit of observation and also through their attention to the popular wisdom of proverbs. Their perplexity is the sort which comes to wise men, and smiles it may evoke are appreciative rather than indulgent. The whole effect of their tales might be compared to that of an illustrated book of maxims in which were included a good number of situations to which no maxims seem to apply.

In creating narrators who are at the same time unlettered and, in their way, sophisticated, Moravia was breaking almost new ground. This is not to say, of course, that there have not been other proletarian narrators who were meant to be taken seriously. Camus' Meursault is a recent example to the contrary. This humble hero's understanding of events is, however, more instinctive than analytic and the tragic substance of his thoughts hardly invites reasonable interpretation. The writer has been able to find a really close literary relative of Adriana only in our own Huck Finn. Like her, he seldom thinks directly about the social questions which his adventures evoke, though his marginal thoughts are full of grave implications. Also like her, he is extraordinarily well-acquainted with the laws of human nature and unusually perspicacious in his diagnosis of concrete psychological situations. Huck has, of course, an entirely different sense of humor—perhaps a typically American one—but there

is a basic similarity of narrative attitudes and techniques.

The protagonists of the *Racconti* are even more unusual in that they are set to telling only of such matters as they understand—at least in the measure that such matters can be understood. It is as though the author, having noted the success of Adriana in presenting certain subjects, had decided to let his next Romans concentrate upon doing what she had done best. No one narrator becomes very well-known and the areas of his weakness, unlike those of Adriana, remain hidden and irrelevant. The result is the appearance in literature of a novel breed of popular intellectuals whose manner of presentation is more intimate than that of an omniscient author and whose language is both simpler and more inventive than that of the usual narrator with a literary education. Their observations about human nature are not, of course, very new or very surprising, the subject being ancient and well-worked. What is new and surprising is their ingenuous gift of expres-

sion, well exemplified in the imaginative *sententia* quoted above. Much of the tales' appeal derives, too, from the narrators' success in assuming the tone of intimate conversation. Speculation about an interesting subject is always more pleasant in the company of another interested person, and it is not for nothing that the narrators are made to seem eager to share their reflections and their perplexities. Their personalities are so well adapted to the subject matter of their stories that they would plainly be less talented for speculation either about social conditions or about man's lot in the universe. After letting them recount over a hundred tales illustrative of the peculiarities of human nature Moravia may well consider that they have exhausted their startling but well-defined talents. It would not be very risky to predict that his next works, having different preoccupations, will depend upon a different kind of narrative device.

BONNER MITCHELL

University of Missouri

* * *

Annual Meeting, Middle States Modern Language Teachers Association

An interesting program will be presented at the annual meeting of the Middle States M.L.T. on November 26, 1960 at 10 a.m. at the Haddon Hall Hotel, Atlantic City, N. J. Dr. Léon Dostert, Director of Machine Translation Research, Georgetown University, and President of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations, will discuss recent progress in machine translation, and Dr. Marjorie C. Johnston, of the U. S. Office of Education, will speak on the growth and development of state supervisor plans for foreign language teaching. The officers of the Association: Henry Grattan Doyle (George Washington, retired), President; Maude Helen Duncan (Temple Uni-

versity), First Vice President, Sister Marie Christine (D'Youville College, Buffalo), Second Vice President, and Elizabeth Litzinger (Baltimore Public Schools), Secretary-Treasurer, extend a cordial invitation to classroom teachers, supervisors, and administrators in the Middle Atlantic States area to attend and participate in a good professional meeting and at the same time enjoy the post-Thanksgiving week-end in Atlantic City. Dues for membership (\$1.00: \$5.00 in combination with a subscription to the *Modern Language Journal*) may be sent to Miss Litzinger at 901 West 38th Street, Baltimore 11, Md., who will also supply the complete program.

* * *

A One-Year Russian Reading Course: Aims and Methods

IN RECENT years it has become manifest that a reading knowledge of Russian can be invaluable, or even indispensable, to scholars and scientists in many fields. Universities have evidenced their awareness of this fact by making it possible for graduate students in a number of disciplines to elect Russian in partial satisfaction of the doctoral requirement of a reading competency in two foreign languages. There has, accordingly, developed a demand for formal instruction in the reading of Russian, and, in response to this, Slavic departments have been obliged to initiate reading courses similar to those which for many years have been available in French or German.

This present study intends to demonstrate what experience has shown to be realistic and attainable aims in such Russian language reading courses, to detail some of the most useful and successful methods to attain these aims, and to point up the problems inherent in this type of language instruction. In no way do we claim to have attained a perfect method, nor do we wish to indicate that others are less knowledgeable than we in this area. We have, however, taught several hundred graduate students to read Russian and we feel that our experience may be helpful to others who are, or will be, engaged in the same task.

Before proceeding, we should state that some pedagogues challenge the whole concept of Russian reading courses as such. It is, admittedly, difficult to deny their contention that reading a language will pose no problem for a student, irrespective of his field of specialization, if he has diligently applied himself over a period of several years in a regular "four skills" course (that is, one which methodically develops the student's aural comprehension, speaking ability, reading and writing proficiency). But many students become aware of the importance of Russian as a research tool only after they have reached a graduate level,

at which juncture they are unable to devote the time customarily required to complete a "four skills" course. Does this mean that they should abandon the idea of acquiring a reading knowledge of the language? We think not. We know many students who have learned to read, fluently and accurately, Russian materials in their fields of specialization, thanks primarily to the existence of reading courses. But do such courses have any applicability *below* the graduate level; should they even be considered a part of the undergraduate curriculum? We believe so, with certain reservations.

If a "four skills" course of three or more years were available, we should certainly recommend, or even insist, that any freshman or sophomore elect that type of course instead of a reading one. But what about the case—and it is one that is today very common, owing to the rapidly expanding interest in Russian—in which a small college, determined to offer some Russian instruction, is able to budget only two or three semesters of the language? Under such circumstances, it does seem to us that a reading course can compete with a "four skills" approach. The student who takes two, or even four semesters of a "four skills" course will almost inevitably emerge from his Russian studies with a slight speaking ability, a restricted aural comprehension, only a partially developed skill in writing the language, and in all probability he will have had only limited experience in reading unsimplified texts. Thus, he will actually be competent in no aspect of the Russian language. Unless he is able to invest additional time for further study of the language, he will in fact achieve nothing of practical value from his one or two years of study. If, however, he devotes one year to a reading course, he will in any case be able to read the language. Here, at least, he will acquire a definite skill which can be utilized. It seems to us that achieving an actual competence in this one

aspect of the language—namely reading—is far superior to acquiring a limited and questionably useful knowledge of all its aspects.

As there is no established tradition in this country of teaching exclusively a reading knowledge of Russian, and as there have only recently appeared textbooks which are even remotely suitable for this type of course, the problem of rapidly preparing numbers of students to read Russian with precision and assurance has been most challenging. The nature of the students, their individual needs, and the time element further combine to create problems unique to this type of instruction. For example, in a traditional Russian "four skills" course the students have a homogeneity of interest and aim which makes possible the application to them as a group of standardized methods and materials. On the other hand, in a reading course each student is concerned exclusively, or at least primarily, with learning to read materials in his particular discipline. It obviously poses a special problem to teach one student to master expository prose in the area of biochemistry while at the same time preparing another to read history. An indication of the diversity of interests to be expected in reading classes is provided by statistics on the students enrolled in our reading course last semester: no less than twenty-four areas of interest were represented, ranging from the flora of the U.S.S.R. to digital computers.

The fact that the majority of those electing Russian reading courses are graduate students has advantages and disadvantages. On the positive side, graduate students are in the habit of studying, and they are, for the most part, aware that languages are not acquired through revelation. Further, the very fact that they have chosen Russian as one of the languages to satisfy the doctoral language requirement indicates a special motivation, a particular need or desire to use the Russian language in their scholarly work; those who regard the doctoral language requirements simply as obstacles to their degree normally elect French and German, which are admittedly somewhat more accessible, rather than combining Russian with one of these. This special motivation is a great asset to the teacher: he can expect a consistently serious effort on the part of his stu-

dents, and he need not worry about their having an immature reaction to legitimate homework assignments.

There are, however, disadvantages connected with this circumstance that the reading classes are composed primarily of graduate students. First, graduates usually have a very limited time in which to learn to read Russian, for they are involved with seminars, preparation for qualifying examinations, and many work part-time as teaching fellows or research assistants. This time factor causes them to have a very pragmatic attitude towards their language learning, and any attempt to enrich the reading course with cultural material not directly applicable to the achievement of their specific goal is militantly resisted. Again, those students who are in scientific disciplines often have had a very limited exposure, if any at all, to foreign languages; those in social sciences or humanities are likely not to have studied any language since their sophomore year of undergraduate work. This lack of background is manifestly a problem to those wishing to learn Russian, which is a highly inflected language and hence more complex than either French or German.

In determining the aims, format, materials and methods of a reading course, one must keep in mind the type of students for whom it is designed and their general needs with respect to the language. In view of the restrictions upon the time of graduate students, who cannot afford the luxury of a leisurely approach to language learning, a reading course should involve three or four hours a week of classwork over a maximum period of two semesters. Experience has established that this is about the minimum investment of time needed to achieve useful results.

The discussion heretofore has concerned some of the factors which determine the general character of the Russian language reading courses. Let us now proceed to an examination of methods and materials which we have found most efficacious in the training of our students.

Our two-semester course falls into two parts, with the dividing point located at the semester break or a week or so following it. In the first half of the course the class meets as a group, working together to acquire the elements of

Russian grammar. During these first months all students, regardless of their individual fields of specialization, study the same lessons from the same textbook and are held responsible for the same homework. (We should, perhaps, at this point note that for our courses we have developed a two-hundred-page Russian reading grammar, divided into sixteen lessons, which include vocabulary, grammatical exposition and examples, reading texts and exercises.¹ The following discussion is based in large part on concepts and methods embodied in this grammar and tested over several years.)

The progress of the class is rapid, since emphasis is on reading and recognition rather than on active oral mastery of the language. Grammar is presented in fairly sizeable blocks: by the eighth week our students have already covered all six cases, singular and plural, for nouns and adjectives, learned to recognize verb tenses and aspects, become acquainted with over a score of prepositions and their usage, covered personal and demonstrative pronouns and their declensions, learned to recognize all forms of the imperative, and been exposed to numerals, their forms and grammatical requirements. By the end of four months the class has become acquainted with the principal morphological and syntactical patterns to be encountered in any Russian text. Structure, rather than vocabulary, has been stressed up to this point. To be useful to a class composed of students with such widely varying interests, the vocabulary in this initial period should be small and unspecialized.

Our methods admittedly deviate to some degree from those advocated for "four skills" classes. Today, for example, many linguists claim that a mastery of the foreign language's sound system should precede any reading or writing. Time considerations make it impossible to follow such an approach in a one-year reading course. Nor do we feel that modern techniques of oral pattern practice and substitution drill, however successful they have proved in "four skills" language courses, can play any important part in a Russian reading course. (They are, after all, techniques for developing new spoken-language habits through constant repetition of selected patterns. As such, their immediate objectives differ from those of a

two-semester reading course, and they require much more time than can be spared in it.) Representative patterns of spoken language, furthermore, will often bear but slight resemblance to the heavy, complex constructions so characteristic of Soviet technical prose.

On the other hand, we do not agree with some of our colleagues, who ignore the spoken language almost completely in reading courses. Although we do not insist on a "mastery" of the Russian sound system on the part of our students, we do encourage them to develop some oral skill. To achieve this, the teacher can read new texts aloud to the students, sentence by sentence (or in smaller units if desirable), asking them to repeat after him in choral response. He may call on individual class members to read aloud in Russian before translating. He should repeatedly bring to the attention of the class such peculiar problems of Russian pronunciation as the unaccented *o* or *e*, the palatalized consonants, and the devoicing of certain consonants in final position. The instructor cannot (we feel) expect the students in a reading course to learn a phonetic (still less, a phonemic) transcription of Russian, but he should encourage them to imitate his pronunciation of the Russian [r], [x], [i] and others as closely as possible. He should point out to them that correct pronunciation habits can best be acquired at the beginning, and that some oral facility will be useful if the student wishes to develop a more active command of Russian, for example in anticipation of a trip to the Soviet Union. In this connection it might be noted that several of our reading-course students have taken such trips, and others intend to do so. An accurate pronunciation and knowledge of Russian syllabification principles will also enable the student to locate new words more rapidly and efficiently in the dictionary.

There are additional reasons for insisting that a student learn a reasonably accurate pronunciation of Russian. Russian, like French or German, possesses a number of cognate words—those which are very similar to their English counterparts. In French or German these are

¹ H. W. Dewey and John Mersereau, Jr., *Reading Russian. An Intensive Course for Researchers and Translators* (mimeographed).

easily recognized, often being identical in spelling to the English word. But in Russian these cognates are disguised by the Cyrillic alphabet. As one student put it, these words "don't look like cognates." Students have even been baffled by such aurally close terms as *файн гред* and *юмэн*, simply because the Cyrillic alphabet screened their meanings: i.e., "fine grade" and "yeoman." Our experience has been that students can have difficulty even in recognizing well-known proper names when they appear in Cyrillic: *Галсворте* may not "look like" Galsworthy, even to the student who is perfectly familiar with this author's name. Obviously the ear is the only means to identify such words as these, and identification will be impossible if the word is not pronounced reasonably correctly.

Many reading courses in French and German concentrate almost exclusively on the activity of translating. In such courses the teacher explains the grammar, while the student confines himself to translating from the foreign language into English. Translating ability, to be sure, is a major objective, but our feeling is that problems caused by the Cyrillic alphabet and certain morphological or syntactical features of Russian make a varied approach particularly productive in the first half of the Russian reading course.

Our objections to translation as the *only* form of exercise in reading courses are twofold: first, this procedure is undeniably monotonous; secondly, we believe that other devices are needed in order to develop the student's recognition of certain Russian morphological features *as rapidly as possible*. To understand what he is reading in Russian, the student must often seek such morphological clues (particularly prefixes and "endings") from the individual words. Since Russian word order is far more flexible than English, French or German, the reader who relies too heavily on word order in Russian will repeatedly be frustrated or misled.

To ensure the most rapid possible development of the student's ability to make use of these morphological clues, we would recommend two types of exercises in addition to translation.

The first type involves the student's *active*

use of certain fundamental declensions and conjugations. For this purpose we have employed a number of fairly traditional written exercises: putting sentences into the plural or into another tense; negating sentences; substituting pronouns for nouns; supplying missing prepositions or missing endings, and the like. Some of our teachers have even required the memorization of basic paradigms. Time limitations impose a rather selective use of these traditional devices in the reading course, but few students, once they have faced unsimplified Russian texts, deny the necessity of actively learning key declensions and conjugations.

The second type of exercise is based on *active recognition*, through conscious choice of the correct form. The necessity of choosing the correct form makes such exercises more difficult than simple translation, but they do serve to point up significant contrasts and contribute even further to the student's grasp of key forms. In exercises of this type the student may be asked to construct complete Russian sentences from groups of deliberately-scrambled words, or to select the correct groups of words (multiple choice) to finish some sentences. He may be shown two columns, A and B, and asked to match each group of words in column A with a group of words in column B to produce a correct Russian sentence, or he may be requested to fill in the blanks in a group of incomplete sentences, using certain words which are furnished, "as required by the meaning" of each sentence.

Although we are confident that a method not exclusively restricted to translation is more productive, we certainly do not avoid this type of exercise. Each lesson in our grammar has a "text" for translation, and with the seventh lesson we introduce additional translation exercises which we call "dictionary practice." These are passages containing unfamiliar vocabulary, which must be looked up by the student in the dictionary, but no unfamiliar grammar. "Dictionary practice" passages are taken directly from current Russian sources and are thus representative, even if their prose often leaves much to be desired. Indeed, selections are deliberately included whose syntax seems particularly "scrambled" from an American reader's point of view. Any student in the

social sciences may encounter and must be prepared for such linguistic monstrosities as the following:

Важнейшим условием мобилизации масс на активное решение поставленных партией задач коммунистического строительства является повседневная пропаганда учения марксизма-ленинизма.

In scientific prose as well, examples of this type of exposition are not infrequent. They are "models," surely not to be imitated or reinforced through oral pattern practice and substitution drill (fortunately, one never comes across such constructions in conversational Russian!) but they must be faced squarely—and understood.

The second half of the course is conducted on an individual, or "tutorial" basis. The student is now reading materials which he himself has selected, in his own field of interest. He meets with the instructor fifteen minutes a week² to translate passages from the material he has prepared and to discuss particular problems which have arisen. Although he now has an adequate grasp of grammar for reading purposes, the student will proceed slowly at first. His vocabulary will be limited; he will come across new idioms and will be plagued by "exceptions" to rules he has learned, and he will sometimes find it difficult to apply old rules to new situations. In a word, he still needs a great deal of supervised practice in reading.

How large should the assignments be at this stage? Because of the many different fields of interest and the varying degree of difficulty of materials even in a particular area of specialization, it seems pointless to make assignments in terms of a set number of pages. The student is aware that he must achieve a proficiency enabling him to pass the written examination at the end of the course. This usually means that he should spend at least eight hours a week preparing translations of materials in his field. When he meets his instructor he can read his translation aloud, while the instructor follows from the original. As the term approaches its end, the student's facility will have increased to such an extent that the instructor will be able to check only a small portion of the weekly translation in fifteen minutes, and the student would do well to note passages which he found difficult or obscure, calling them to the instruc-

tor's attention during the conference.

Given two semesters of about fifteen weeks each, with classes meeting three or four hours a week, what are the results that one can realistically expect from a Russian reading course?

The obvious aim of any reading course is to teach the student to read the subject language. There is considerable variation, however, within the definition of the word "to read." A reading knowledge insufficient to cope with all texts that a student might encounter in his area of specialization would hardly be worth while. Further, if one's knowledge of the language is not thorough enough to enable him to translate with complete accuracy, its usefulness becomes extremely doubtful. Particularly in the case of the sciences, an inaccurate translation is not only worse than none at all but may even result in the student's being hoisted by his own petard. It is evident, therefore, that, given a limited time in which to acquire a reading knowledge, a student must sacrifice speed in reading for accuracy.

Experience has demonstrated that the average student can be expected to achieve a rate of three hundred words an hour of *written* translation. Highly motivated students are able to achieve this goal by the middle of their second semester, in which case their achievement by the end of the course is double or even triple the minimum requirement. We have had students who, at the end of two semesters, are virtually able to sight-read. This is particularly true of those in such fields as mathematics or physics, where the prose style of expository passages is fairly standard and rather restricted in vocabulary. Students in the humanities face a much greater challenge, as the prose styles and vocabularies are virtually limitless.

To demonstrate his ability to read Russian, upon completion of his reading course, the student chooses two works in his discipline with a total of not less than five hundred pages. If the texts are heavily saturated with formulae, then the number of pages is raised accordingly.

² If the section has not more than fifteen or sixteen students, this tutorial procedure will take no more time (four hours) than did the regular class meetings in the first half of the course.

From these works the instructor selects at random two passages, with a total of six hundred words. The student then attempts to prepare a translation within a time limit of two hours with the aid of a dictionary.

The matter of permissible errors is a complex one. Accuracy is naturally the paramount criterion of excellence in judging any translation, and this must always be borne in mind. We are not at all impressed by those who claim to be able to get the "gist" of some passage, for such claims are usually an attempt to screen an inability to translate accurately. There are, however, some excusable errors, and it would be rather naive to demand that no errors whatsoever be allowed. The realistic teacher must also face the fact that the absence of adequate Russian-English dictionaries in many technical fields causes difficulties in translating which are not encountered to such an extent in French or German.

We would, therefore, not consider it disqualifying if the student left untranslated two or three words in his six-hundred-word examination, particularly if these words were in fact not available in his dictionaries. We would also be inclined to overlook mistranslations

involving verb tense if these did not materially alter the basic sense of the passage. But an error which caused the subject of the sentence to become the object, or vice versa, would be regarded as a cardinal sin and probably considered sufficient grounds for disqualification. In general, no errors which basically violate the author's intended meaning are allowed. More than two or three of these would certainly indicate that the student was insufficiently prepared to proceed to unsupervised translation of Russian.

In our opinion the need for reading courses will continue to grow irrespective of the inception of additional "four skills" courses and the development of new methods and texts to improve the latter. We cannot overemphasize our conviction that reading courses justify their place in the curriculum of our universities by the extent and value of the accomplishment which they make possible. It is to be hoped that serious linguists, once aware of the need, will turn their attention to the creation of better methods and materials for these courses.

HORACE W. DEWEY

JOHN MERSEREAU, JR.

The University of Michigan

* * *

Language Study and the National Need

A salutary up-swing of interest in the study of foreign languages is manifest no longer only in the talk of educators but also in federal action in support of foreign language instruction. The involvement of our country in a position of international leadership no longer permits to be anything but appalling the fact, for instance, that three out of every four of those who enter the Foreign Service have no useful knowledge of any other tongue than their own.

Surely we are belated in moving to try to rectify such conditions—particularly so as regards the languages of the Orient and of Central Europe. We must make up for much lost time. Yet most gratifying as is this new concern and support for foreign language instruction, I am much troubled at the immaturity of so much of the motivation behind it. Far too widely it seems to be regarded only as a matter of developing communication skills for those increasing numbers of U. S. citizens who must deal with peoples of foreign lands. This notion has an appeal, but it is my conviction that language study so conceived cannot, and will not, carry us far enough; it sets our sights far too low.

Knowledge of their native tongue is a primary instrument in understanding the people of a nation. Properly undertaken, it is an avenue of understanding into the culture, the aspirations, the intimate feelings, the thought patterns of a people—to all the elements that make others as they are. More even than an ability to communicate in others' tongue, that is to say, we need to learn to know and to respect the culture of others—their history, their religion, their art, the things they value as their own. Only in this way can we hope for enlarged rapport with the peoples of other lands—or expect them to want to join with us gladly

in the quest for a peaceable world order, built upon mutual advantage and mutual respect.

In every sphere of learning that falls within their purview—whether the field be scientific or humanistic—it is such larger and more liberal competence that our colleges and universities must endeavor to sustain and to advance. And perhaps I may be pardoned if I cite as fruitful examples two particular enterprises within my own university. One is its Program in Near Eastern Studies and the other is its Special Program in European Civilization. In each case, by the cooperative efforts of faculty members who bring together the study of history, economics, politics, art, literature and language, the objective is to develop in depth a comprehensive view, so that students may be able to "know" and to evaluate the people of the area in their concreteness as individuals, in their collective aspects as members of an organic society, and as nations within the family of nations.

It is, in such ways, by aiming at breadth of vision rather than at facility alone, that we may best help to develop understanding and creative minds in those who must deal with the world's peoples and problems, and not merely with their own. Nor is it only the occasional student for whom we need be concerned. It is to every future citizen's advantage to discover that the sum of wisdom is not limited to his own times and to his own locality and language.

*Princeton University, in Essential Tasks
The Woodrow Wilson Foundation*

ROBERT F. GOHEEN

* * *

Teaching the Dialects in Arabic

THROUGHOUT the Western world, Arabic has until recently been taught as one of the minor dead languages. Nevertheless if we look at the map or read the newspapers these days, we see that it is neither dead nor as limited in scope as Greek or Latin.

The range of Arabic has suddenly broadened out in this generation from the former "Middle East" to the Atlantic and Indian oceans, and it embraces between 70 and 80 growing millions of people in a dozen countries. Geographically it gives us entrance to the strategic southern shores of the Mediterranean and Persian Gulf, as well as direct and indirect access to much of Africa and Asia, as rich in legend and culture yesterday as they are busy with oil and politics today. For the linguist, Arabic serves as a basis for tongues like Persian, Turkish, Urdu, Swahili and Malay, though these languages do not belong to the Semitic family.

We thus see that Arabic is a vital language whose importance should grow during the next few decades. The Office of Education in Washington has already declared it a "strategic" language and has helped set up a few centers for its instruction. Our college language departments and laboratories should be preparing to introduce it more widely as a modern foreign language. However, our methods of instruction have not yet adjusted to our growing needs.

Arabic has many dialects which have caught the interest of scholars here and in Europe. In fact, these dialects have been distressing our descriptive linguists, who are interested in detail and whose approach has been chiefly through the speech of Cairo and Beirut, because they have not been observing the geographical explosion just referred to. We are not prepared to put Arabic into the classroom and have been training people to get around only in a small segment of the Arabic-speaking world, though our diplomats and salesmen will not necessarily land in Alexandria or Beirut, but just as easily in Judda, Casablanca or Tunis.

This situation is not insoluble. Arabic has an

underlying unity which we have not recognized and which the French in North Africa, for instance, have preferred to ignore. The situation we face is similar to that in Spanish, where we train our students to recognize various "accents," and never to go exclusively to Havana or Buenos Aires. This *español castizo* is close to "public school English" in England or radio announcers' American in North America, since the standard is somewhat artificial (but the situation is quite different from Parisian, since French prefers a centralized dialect).

In Arabic this generalized speech is known as *Fuṣḥā*. Its use is spreading in the newspapers and on the radio, so it is a linguistic phenomenon worth observing (and perhaps helping to guide), since it leads into the future. We need a fresh start in teaching beyond the mere tape or informant approach, and should begin to experiment with the Arabic which will be spoken and written throughout the Arab world during the next half century. This general version of Standard Arabic or *Fuṣḥā* is understood and used by educated Arabs from Morocco to 'Umān, and its use is increasing as the Arabs regain control of their educational, information and broadcasting systems. In Arab colleges, teachers from other countries deliver their lectures in a style which everyone in the classroom is able to understand; while students from lands generally different from their professors', since they do not have colleges at home (i.e., Algeria, the Ḥaḍramawt, Zanzibar etc.) get along very well together in their cantens and clubs shortly after arrival.

"Classical" is a misnomer, and "Standard Arabic" would be more up-to-date, for the former term induces unwary observers to think it is exclusively written and antiquated, and holds a relation similar to that of Latin with the Romance tongues. In our curricula it might be better introduced as "Grammar and Composition," though with the warning that, as the speech of the educated in their contact

with outsiders, the accent may vary from land to land.

Our pedagogical problem stems from the fact that few native informants are available in North America, and still fewer know much about linguistics and classroom teaching. The system of reproducing sound cheaply and conveniently by means of magnetic tape enables the student to hear intensive drills in any language where native speakers are available, overlearning sounds and speech patterns in sessions which would task a live voice. This should be saved rather for pattern drill and free conversation, where the live teacher must arouse interest and student response. Thus we need a body of tapes for instruction, including selections of modern and ancient poetry and similar readings by speakers from various areas, as well as phonetic and syntactic analysis of each dialect. We should not confuse our students, yet they must become used to dialectal variety or different "accents" as is done in teaching Spanish.

A good device is a series of roughly parallel conversations on various topics to drill the college student in general vocabulary and teach him how to get around in Arab society. Such a course can be designed as a first-year course like any other beginning language, though with the stress on the spoken approach. The topics can be turned into six dialects (Egyptian, Jordanian, 'Iraqi, Sa'udī, Yamani and Tunisian) with only slight variations so they can be compared phonetically and syntactically. The changes can be restricted chiefly to the vocabulary and the syntax, but the general trend of each conversation can remain the same. These dialects can be complemented by the addition of the speech of at least two other

major areas, Morocco and Lebanon, plus perhaps Algerian, Libyan and Sudanese.¹

Drill material can be prepared for the analysis of grammar and speech patterns in these dialects. Comparative drill material should also be prepared in some other key dialects like Egyptian or Sa'udī. This of course must be complemented by free conversation under a native teacher, to loosen the students up and get them away from a strict text; and by composition and grammar, to permit them to read and use a dictionary.

For a definitive work, however, further linguistic analysis both as to the phonetics of each dialect, and their variant vocabulary and structure are needed. Needed also is a comparative analysis of Arabic phonetics as a whole, which has never been accomplished; plus syntax in the dialects; and finally a treatment of the morphology or means of word formation from the trilateral roots which the Arabs call *inshiqāq*. This last is probably the least studied aspect of Arabic, especially as its features can be applied to classroom teaching; yet it can be as fascinating as wordbuilding in German or Greek, and it seems to have influenced Spanish.

It is possible to employ similar methods in the study of Turkish, Persian and Urdu-Hindi, which are related in vocabulary and at times in their script. There are many Turkish, Iranian and Pakistani students on our campuses, and their speech should be recorded in various dialects and with several speakers; following which they should be used in class and analyzed in parallel fashion.

T. B. IRVING

University of Minnesota

¹ The author has prepared such a set of materials.

* * *

Foreign Language Study for Broadcasters

A study of languages by aspirants to radio fame is of vital importance, according to Alice Keith, Director of the National Academy of Broadcasting, in Washington, D. C. Miss Keith says that students too frequently feel all they need is a flair for speaking extemporaneously and find themselves out in the cold when they are confronted with an audition script containing foreign musical and geographical terms.

The National Academy of Broadcasting, throughout its

course, requires the students to study the pronunciation of Italian, Spanish, French, German, Scandinavian and Russian, and urges students to study at least two languages seriously, if they hope to succeed in the field of radio.

"The earliest announcers," Miss Keith says, "were selected from the ranks of singers because they were familiar with the proper pronunciation of various foreign languages." Radio has made the world so small today that a knowledge of languages is of prime importance to broadcasters.

The Superimposition of a National Language¹

AT WHAT rate does an imposed national language become adopted in everyday life by the people of a district that has its own language? This question stimulated the following investigation of the relationship between a national language, in this instance Indonesian, and a district language, in this case Sundanese, as reflected in the lives of pupils (grade three through twelve) in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia.

Indonesian is now the official tongue of the Indonesian Republic, which is the Southeast Asian nation made up of most of the islands formerly comprising the Dutch East Indies. However, Indonesian is not the native language of most of the country's 88 million residents. At home most Indonesians speak the language of their district, such as Sundanese in West Java, Javanese in Central and East Java, Batak in North Sumatra, Minangkabau in Middle Sumatra, and so forth. After learning their native language, the growing generation of Indonesians must therefore thus adjust Indonesian (which they apparently do in good spirit and without the usual resentment toward an imposed tongue found in some other lands).

Indonesian is based on the Malay language which originated in Sumatra, became the language of the Malay Straits, and for several centuries has served as the medium of communication among traders in the island ports of Southeast Asia. It had its real start as the national Indonesian language in the late 1920's when a youth convention with delegates from the various Dutch-controlled islands set as their ideal the adoption of the Indonesian version of Malay as the islands' tongue with a view to uniting the diverse ethnic groups to form "one nation, with one language." It has spread rapidly since the successful fight for independence from Dutch rule after World War II. As a result, in most elementary schools today instruction through grade three is still conducted in the language of the district, but

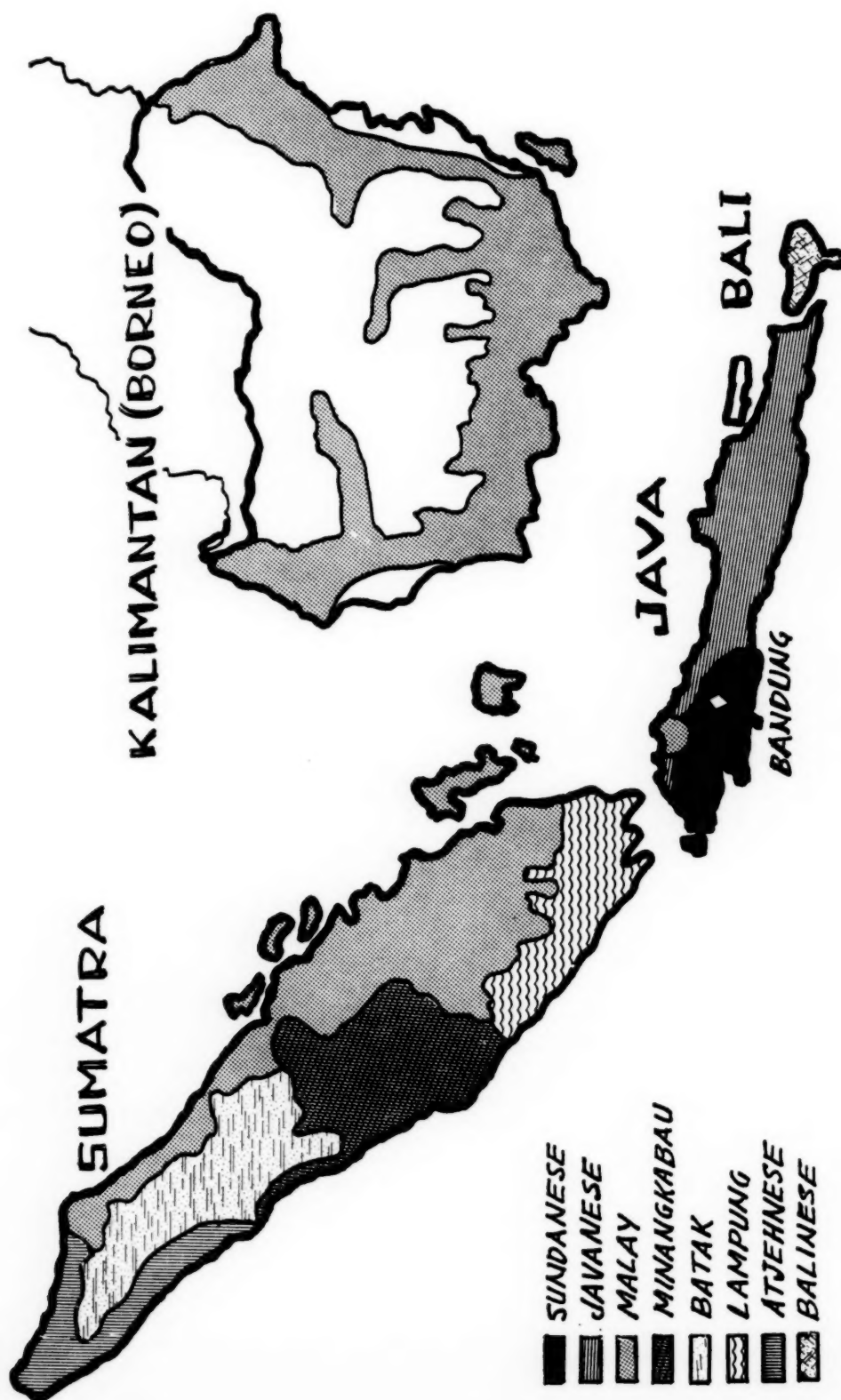
from grade four through high school the instruction is in Indonesian.

This investigation was conducted in Bandung, a city of perhaps one million population in the mountains of West Java. The native language of the district is Sundanese. But because Bandung is a university center and one of the most cosmopolitan cities in the nation, it draws people from other districts. Hence, one could expect the diverse inhabitants to use their own native tongues at least part of the time. In 35 classrooms in 10 schools (four elementary, three junior high, three high schools) a research assistant, therefore, asked pupils to answer two questions on a prepared form: (1) what language or languages do you use daily in your home? (2) what language or languages do you use daily with your friends outside the home? A total of 1443 pupils, grade three through twelve, responded. The schools which the pupils attended were recommended by the district inspectorate as probably being representative of the public school population of Bandung.²

The tabulated data in the final column of Table I) indicate that Sundanese is the only home language for the majority of students (64+ percent). A combination of Sundanese-Indonesian is the second most frequently mentioned (19 percent of pupils). Indonesian as the sole language used by the child at home is represented by only three percent. Javanese

¹ This study was conducted in relation to a teacher-education project financed by the Ford Foundation. The writers gratefully acknowledge the aid in this study of Research Assistants Andi Lanamihardja and S. Hutabarat.

² An inspection of the vocations of the fathers of the students in the sample suggests that the population in school was not truly representative of the entire population of children in the Bandung area. Though there is a lack of good data on socio-economic levels in Bandung, the review of fathers' occupations plus results of a study in Central Java tend to support the belief that the school population (especially in the upper grades) was drawn from middle and higher socio-economic levels rather than equally from all strata of the population.



LANGUAGES OF WESTERN INDONESIA. Shading shows predominant language in each area. White areas, as on Kalimantan, denote languages not involved in the present study. (Adapted from Bachtar, Adam et al. *Atlas Untuk Sekolah Landjudan*. Djakarta: Djambatan, 1957, p. 16.)

TABLE I
STUDENTS' USE OF LANGUAGE AT HOME
(Reported in Percent)

| Grade Level in School | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | Total |
|----------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Rank | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number of Pupils | 49 | 183 | 171 | 157 | 162 | 160 | 271 | 105 | 94 | 91 | 1443 |
| 1. Sundanese | 87.75 | 61.20 | 61.41 | 65.61 | 69.13 | 67.51 | 57.94 | 68.57 | 67.02 | 64.86 | 64.80 |
| 2. Sundanese-Indonesian | — | 31.70 | 31.58 | 24.84 | 12.31 | 13.77 | 16.97 | 13.36 | 14.90 | 8.80 | 19.20 |
| 3. Indonesian | — | 3.83 | 1.74 | 5.73 | 3.70 | 5.00 | 4.79 | 1.92 | 1.06 | 5.50 | 3.60 |
| 4. Javanese-Indonesian | 2.04 | 1.10 | 0.58 | 1.28 | 4.32 | 3.13 | 6.63 | 1.92 | 2.12 | 2.20 | 2.47 |
| 5. Javanese | 6.12 | 0.55 | 2.91 | 0.64 | 3.09 | 2.50 | 1.85 | 3.86 | 5.31 | 3.30 | 2.12 |
| 6. Sundanese-Javanese | — | 0.55 | 1.17 | 0.64 | 3.70 | 1.88 | 3.33 | 5.80 | 3.19 | 2.20 | 2.05 |
| 7. Sund.-Ind.-Javanese | — | — | — | — | — | 0.63 | 1.47 | 1.92 | — | 4.40 | 0.76 |
| 8. Malay | — | — | — | — | 2.47 | 1.88 | 0.74 | — | — | — | 0.62 |
| 9. Ind.-Minangkabau | — | — | — | 0.64 | 0.62 | — | 2.21 | — | — | — | 0.55 |
| 10. Ind.-Chinese | — | — | — | — | — | — | 1.83 | — | — | 1.10 | 0.42 |
| 11. Minangkabau | — | — | — | — | — | 1.25 | — | — | 1.06 | 1.10 | 0.28 |
| 12. Indonesian-Malay | — | 1.10 | — | — | — | 0.63 | 0.37 | — | — | — | 0.28 |
| 13. Batak-Indonesian | — | — | — | — | — | — | 0.37 | 0.96 | — | 1.10 | 0.21 |
| 14. Indonesian-Lampung | — | — | 0.58 | 0.64 | — | — | 0.37 | — | — | — | 0.21 |
| 15. Sundanese-Malay | — | — | — | — | — | 0.63 | 0.37 | — | — | 1.10 | 0.21 |
| 16. Lampung | 2.04 | — | — | — | — | — | — | 0.96 | — | — | 0.14 |
| 17. Sundanese-Dutch | — | — | — | — | — | — | 0.37 | — | 1.06 | — | 0.14 |
| 18. Sund.-Ind.-Malay | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 0.96 | — | 1.10 | 0.14 |
| 19. Chinese | 2.04 | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 0.07 |
| 20. Indonesian-Dutch | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 1.10 | 0.07 |
| 21. Sund.-Ind.-English | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 1.06 | — | 0.07 |
| 22. Batak-Malay | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 1.06 | — | 0.07 |
| 23. Ind.-Java.-Dutch | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 1.06 | — | 0.07 |
| 24. Batak | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 1.10 | 0.07 |
| 25. Indonesian-English | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 1.06 | — | 0.07 |
| 26. Sund.-Java.-English | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 0.96 | — | — | 0.07 |
| 27. Atjeh-Indonesian | — | — | — | — | 0.62 | — | — | — | — | — | 0.07 |
| 28. Dutch | — | — | — | — | — | 0.63 | — | — | — | — | 0.07 |
| 29. Sundanese-Chinese | — | — | — | — | — | — | 0.37 | — | — | — | 0.07 |
| 30. Sund.-Ind.-Minangkabau | — | — | — | — | — | — | 0.37 | — | — | — | 0.07 |
| 31. Sund.-Java.-Malay | — | — | — | — | — | — | 0.37 | — | — | — | 0.07 |
| 32. Balinese | — | — | — | — | — | — | 0.37 | — | — | — | 0.07 |

(two percent) and combinations of Javanese-Indonesian (almost three percent) and Javanese-Sundanese (two percent) form the next most popular grouping. The remaining 26 language combinations reported by the pupils are scattered somewhat evenly through the remaining six percent of the sample.

Data from Table I show, moreover, that at home a majority of younger children (grade four and below) use only Sundanese. When grades three and four are combined, the amount using only Sundanese at home is almost 67 percent (± 3.1).³ It should be noted that the percent of Sundanese used at home by third-grade children is much larger (87.75 percent)

than that reported by children in grade four or above. If the third-grade sample of 49 children can be considered representative of most third graders, this change between grades three and four possibly can be attributed to the influence of school instruction in Indonesian beginning at grade four.

When we compare the percents at each grade level using only Sundanese at home, we see that between grades four and twelve no very marked change occurs. (Most percents are in the 60's.) This suggests the possibility that the

³ In this report s represents the standard error of a percent.

home language for the people native to the district continues rather stable throughout the child's school years, at least after the time he has begun to use the national language at school.

To verify the fact that at home high-school students use Indonesian more than elementary-school students do, we need to collect all reported language combinations from Table I that include Indonesian as one of the tongues used in the home. (That is, we sum items 2, 3, 4, 7, 9, 10, 12, 14, 18, 20, 21, 23, 25, 27, and 30 for each grade level.) The following percentages result from this summing.

children, probably establish the pattern of what language is to be used at home, we then might be able to expect the results we received. That is, in the homes of younger parents the new national language is more often used. (2) Not all elementary-school graduates attend junior high, and not all junior-high graduates attend college-preparatory high school. There are selection tests at each level which eliminate some students, and a lack of finances prevents other poorer children from continuing though they may be adequate as students. Hence, it is possible that the population represented by the elementary-school sample is sufficiently differ-

TABLE I-A
PERCENT OF STUDENTS USING AT LEAST SOME INDONESIAN AT HOME

| Grade | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|---------|-----|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|
| Percent | 2.0 | 27.7 | 34.5 | 33.1 | 21.6 | 23.1 | 33.9 | 20.0 | 21.3 | 24. |

If we combine all elementary grades into one percentage, all junior high into one, and all senior high into one, the overall picture becomes clearer.

On the other hand, Table I-B suggests that

TABLE I-B
PERCENT OF STUDENTS USING AT LEAST SOME
INDONESIAN AT HOME

| School Level | Elementary (Grades 3-6) | Junior High (Grades 7-9) | Senior High (Grades 1-12) |
|--------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| Percent | 32.32 | 27.66 | 21.73 |

a significantly smaller number of older (senior high) students use some Indonesian at home than younger (elementary) pupils in the sample. (The elementary and senior-high percentages are significantly different, as reflected by a $t=3.38$.) The form of the present study does not yield an explanation for this trend. We can only speculate concerning two possible reasons for it. (1) Possibly the average age of parents of the elementary-school sample is several years lower than parents of the high-school group. Possibly younger parents tend to use Indonesian more frequently than older parents as one of the home languages. Since the parents, not the

ent from the high-school sample to make comparisons difficult. Some characteristic of the two samples rather than the trend for Indonesian to be used less at home as a child grows older may be the factor causing the observed differences in percentages. A longitudinal study rather than a cross-sectional one would yield appropriate data for testing this hypothesis.

The final column of Table II shows that when we combine all grade levels, some form of Indonesian (either alone or in combination with other languages is used by 61.67 percent of pupils outside the home. (Combine items 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, and 12 of Table II.) The next most popular language is Sundanese alone (38.19 percent).

Data in Table II also indicate that with friends outside the home a majority of younger children (grade four and below) use only Sundanese. Combining grades three and four, we find almost 91 percent of younger children using only Sundanese with their companions.

As seen in Table II-A, there is a consistent increase through the grades in the percent of students who use at least some Indonesian in conversing with friends outside the home. (The small reduction in percent between grades eleven and twelve could be due to a slight

TABLE II
STUDENTS' USE OF LANGUAGE OUTSIDE WITH FRIENDS
(Reported as Percent)

| Grade Level in School | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | Total |
|-------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Rank | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number of Pupils | 49 | 183 | 174 | 157 | 162 | 160 | 271 | 105 | 94 | 91 | 1443 |
| 1. Sundanese-Indonesian | — | 3.29 | 22.20 | 35.68 | 45.64 | 65.03 | 61.25 | 74.32 | 80.84 | 60.45 | 45.32 |
| 2. Sundanese | 93.87 | 90.17 | 74.26 | 58.60 | 32.72 | 18.14 | 9.22 | 6.68 | 2.13 | 5.49 | 38.19 |
| 3. Indonesian | 6.12 | 6.56 | 3.50 | 5.74 | 20.98 | 14.39 | 26.21 | 13.47 | 9.56 | 23.12 | 13.93 |
| 4. Sund.-Java.-Ind. | — | — | — | — | — | — | 1.84 | 1.94 | 2.12 | 1.10 | 0.76 |
| 5. Sund.-Ind.-English | — | — | — | — | 0.96 | 0.63 | — | 2.86 | 2.12 | 4.40 | 0.76 |
| 6. Ind.-Javanese | — | — | — | — | — | — | 1.47 | — | 2.12 | — | 0.55 |
| 7. Ind.-English | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 1.06 | 1.10 | 0.14 |
| 8. Ind.-Dutch | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 1.10 | 0.07 |
| 9. English | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 1.10 | 0.07 |
| 10. Sunda-Malay | — | — | — | — | — | 0.63 | — | — | — | — | 0.07 |
| 11. Other combination | — | — | — | — | — | 0.63 | — | — | — | — | 0.07 |
| 12. Indonesian-Malay | — | — | — | — | — | — | 0.37 | — | — | — | 0.07 |

TABLE II-A
PERCENT OF STUDENTS USING AT LEAST SOME INDONESIAN OUTSIDE WITH FRIENDS

| Grade | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|---------|-----|-----|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Percent | 6.1 | 9.8 | 25.7 | 41.4 | 67.3 | 81.3 | 90.8 | 93.3 | 97.9 | 94.5 |

sampling variation and probably does not represent a true deviation from the general trend.)

We see that among young children (grades three and four) there are few who do use some Indonesian with friends. Among high school students, it is the rare one who does not use at least some Indonesian with friends.

Data from Table II demonstrate that even though high-school students might use Indonesian more with friends outside the home, a majority still continue to use their own district language also with friends. If we collect the language combinations involving both Sundanese and Indonesian (items 2, 4, 5) we derive the

percents for grades ten, eleven, and twelve as shown in II-B.

Table III shows the relationships between the language a child uses at home and the language he uses outside. This table yields some information about language patterns that extends beyond that found in Table I and II. For instance, we see that although the majority of young children speak only Sundanese at home and outside, very few high school students retain this pattern of using only Sundanese. In grades four, five, and six there are numbers of children speaking a Sundanese-Indonesian combination at home but only Sundanese with

TABLE II-B
PERCENT OF HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS USING SOME COMBINATION OF
INDONESIAN-SUNDANESE OUTSIDE WITH FRIENDS

| Grade | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|---------------------------------------|--------|--------|---------|
| Some Indonesian-Sundanese Combination | 79.12% | 85.08% | 65.95%* |
| Indonesian Alone | 13.47% | 9.56% | 23.12% |

* The smallest I-S percent is significantly different from 50 as seen by an s of 4.95, thus supporting the conclusion that a majority or more than 50 percent of the sample uses an I-S combination with friends.

TABLE III
TRENDS IN USE OF SUNDANESE AND INDONESIAN AT HOME AND WITH FRIENDS OUTSIDE
(Reported in Percent)

| Language Used by Student | | Grade Level in School | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|
| | | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | Total |
| At Home | With Friends | Number of Pupils | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | 49 | 183 | 171 | 157 | 162 | 160 | 271 | 105 | 94 | 91 | 1443 |
| Sundanese | Sundanese | 85.7 | 59.6 | 50.9 | 39.5 | 27.2 | 15.0 | 7.4 | 4.8 | 2.1 | 3.3 | 27.6 |
| Sundanese | Sundanese Indonesian | 0.0 | 0.5 | 10.5 | 23.6 | 33.9 | 48.1 | 45.8 | 57.1 | 59.6 | 49.4 | 32.1 |
| Sundanese Indonesian | Sundanese Indonesian | 0.0 | 2.2 | 9.4 | 7.0 | 6.7 | 9.4 | 10.0 | 11.5 | 12.8 | 4.4 | 7.7 |
| Sundanese Indonesian | Sundanese | 0.0 | 26.8 | 9.9 | 15.9 | 3.1 | 1.9 | 0.4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 7.5 |
| Sundanese | Indonesian | 2.0 | 1.1 | 0.0 | 2.6 | 8.0 | 3.8 | 4.8 | 3.8 | 3.2 | 6.6 | 3.6 |
| Indonesian | Indonesian | 0.0 | 2.2 | 0.6 | 0.0 | 1.9 | 3.7 | 3.7 | 0.0 | 1.1 | 5.5 | 1.9 |
| Sundanese Indonesian | Indonesian | 0.0 | 2.7 | 2.3 | 1.9 | 2.5 | 1.9 | 6.3 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 4.4 | 3.0 |
| All other language combinations | | 12.3 | 4.9 | 16.4 | 9.5 | 16.7 | 16.2 | 21.6 | 20.9 | 19.1 | 26.4 | 16.6 |

their friends outside. In high school we find no combinations of this type. We also note that at all grade levels only a very small percent of children speak Sundanese-Indonesian at home and only Indonesian outside. In addition, very few speak only Indonesian both at home and outside.

In addition the data suggest that a greater variety of language combinations is used in the home than outside the home in Bandung. The combinations in the home (Table I) total 32. The combinations outside the home (Table II) total twelve. An inspection of the kinds of combinations in these two tables suggests that people who immigrate to Bandung continue to use their own original district language at home. But to communicate with people outside the home they adopt a language more popular in the Bandung area—in each instance some combination that includes either Indonesian or Sundanese. (There was only one exception to this: a single twelfth-grade student reported using only English with friends outside. English is the first official foreign language of the

country and is taught through the junior- and senior-high grades as a required subject.)

Table I also reveals something about the immigration patterns of Bandung residents not native to the district. All of the languages reported are ones originating on Java or on the islands to the northwest, chiefly Sumatra. Except for a single student who reported using Balinese at home, none of the languages originated on any island to the east or northeast of Java. Apparently immigrants, at least those reflected by the school population, come primarily from the west.

It should also be noted in Table I that most of the language combinations from other districts are represented among junior- and senior-high school students. The reason for this is not apparent from the data. We can only speculate about possibilities. One possibility is that capable students from other islands come to live with relatives in Bandung and to attend secondary schools there. Another is that men who bring their families from other islands tend to be from the upper-middle and upper social

classes who fill higher level positions in government offices, businesses, and educational institutions in Bandung, or perhaps they are military officers. Children from these social-class levels are more likely to obtain a secondary education than are poorer children.

The survey of 1443 school pupils (grades three through twelve) in the city of Bandung, Indonesia, made during a single month (November, 1959), showed that the majority of younger children spoke only Sundanese at home. After grade three the percent using only Sundanese at home remained rather stable through all grades to the twelfth (around 60 to 65 percent). The next most common home language was a Sundanese-Indonesian combination (ranging from about 25 to 30 percent of elementary-school pupils to about 10 to 15 percent of high-school students). A total of 32 different language combinations was found to be spoken in the homes the pupils came from. The greatest variety of languages was found in the junior and senior high school groups.

Among the younger elementary-school children in the sample, Sundanese was by far the most popular language used with friends out-

side the home (94 percent at third grade, 90 percent at fourth). Indonesian was used by very few. But with each advancing grade level Indonesian (often in combination with Sundanese) became more popular so that in high school the situation was just the opposite to that of the elementary grades. In high school some combination of Indonesian was used by about 95 percent of the students surveyed. A total of twelve different language combinations was reported used by students outside the home.

The results therefore, indicate that an imposed national language, Indonesian, in this case has been adopted much more readily for communicating outside the home than within the home. If the languages used at home are an accurate reflection of the origin of immigrants to Bandung, most immigration to this West Java city is from the island of Java itself and islands to the northwest, not from the east or northeast.

R. MURRAY THOMAS

State University of New York Indonesian Team

WINARNO SURACHMAD

College of Education, Padjadjaran University

* * *

Modern Languages Go to Oxford

For centuries Oxford and Cambridge Universities have been formidable bastions of the classical tradition. Both of these venerable English institutions have required every candidate for admission to pass a Latin examination. Early this year, however, Oxford's governing body voted to drop the Latin requirement for students who meet certain qualifications in the sciences or in modern languages. It is expected that soon Cambridge will take similar action.

Speaking against the new policy, Miss Helen Gardner of Oxford explained that: "The decline of Latin . . . is one cause of growing incompetence in the writing of English." Contradicting this viewpoint, W. F. Oakshott, also of Oxford, said: "The world has changed. What was an important requirement fifty years ago is now out of date."

It seems that even Britain's Prime Minister might agree with the latter statement. In early May, when Old Oxonian

Mauricius Haraldus Macmillan, 66, was being awarded an honorary doctor of civil law degree, and installed as the University's new chancellor, he expressed his thanks for honors in hesitant Latin. After returning to the comforts of his native tongue with a sigh of relief, he remarked: "My Latin pronunciation is almost as obsolete as the language itself."

Though Oxford's new regulations look like a major breakthrough for Modern Foreign Languages, it is doubtful teachers of those languages would want to see wholesale abandonment of classical languages. Modern language teachers are especially cognizant of the role and importance of Latin and wholeheartedly agree with Ben Jonson's calling her "mother of tongues."

GEORGE J. EDBERG

Purdue University

* * *

Will the "New Key" Prove Flat?

IT IS with reluctance that one enters into the struggle between the "traditional" vs. the "natural" methods of language instruction and the advisability of one over the other in the high school. Nonetheless, the frenzy of recent months which has arisen out of the bonanza of foundation and government grants for fostering foreign language study makes a restatement of the conservative position necessary. An example of the kind of error into which overzealousness may carry us may be seen in the recommendations of the NASSP Committee which appeared recently in *PMLA* (Sept., 1959). This text is chosen arbitrarily; most recent pronouncements on language instruction would serve as well. One of the opening paragraphs of this document reads:

There is nothing extremely difficult in learning to speak a modern foreign language. As a matter of fact, this is the natural way children learn their native tongue. It is when we begin a study of language by examining structure and memorizing conjugations that it becomes formal and tough for many students. A bookish study of modern language has been ineffective in enabling them to speak a language with any degree of proficiency (p. 28).

The first statement is extremely deceptive and the more so as it is clarified by the second. It is deceptive because it is true only if the number of hours of contact with the new language is admitted to be generally equivalent to the number of hours the foreign child spends in contact with his own language before he gains fluency. Obviously there is no practical plan in view which would provide the high school student with even a fraction of the contact with the foreign language that is possible for the child in the foreign environment. The "natural" argument lacks all pertinence when we are dealing with a situation where the student is working in the language only one hour a day.

The second misjudgment contained in the above declaration is that "examining structure and memorizing conjugations" is more tedious or difficult than the oral approach. The conversational method is successful only when the students are required to memorize syntactical

units, idioms, and set patterns of speech. Free oral expression is unprofitable in the schoolroom; little is learned in relation to the time and energy expended. Proper oral training is in no way less difficult than the traditional approach. In fact, it can become infinitely more wearisome if it is not conducted by an unusually competent and inventive instructor. Finally, the fundamental error in all natural or direct methods is that they do not take into account the fact that, ultimately, speaking is nothing less than instantaneous composition, that is to say, the most difficult of all language skills. To close one's eyes to this fact can only lead to frustration and unsound pedagogy.

The last statement in the passage cited ("a bookish study . . . has been ineffective . . .") may or may not be true. Whether it is or not does not assure that the "natural" method will be any more successful in "enabling students to speak with any degree of proficiency." A basic element of speaking proficiency is the ability to say what you want to say and to say it with sufficient syntactical precision to be clearly understood. The elimination of books and of the analysis of the mechanics of a language is not likely to contribute to either flexibility or precision of expression. Descriptive grammar is not unnecessary baggage; it is a short-cut to a broad and intelligent grasp of a language. When we fail to utilize classification of similarities—verb endings, for example—and other abstractions of word and phrase patterns which exist in every language, we ignore the intellect. High school students are not infants, and should not be forced to confine themselves to the learning patterns of children. The failure of foreign language instruction in high schools is more probably the result of poor standards and the lack of study. Contrary to the affirmations of the NASSP document, the learning of a foreign language outside the foreign environment is a long and demanding task. There is no substitute for application and effort, and the way to learn the most in the shortest possible time is to avail

oneself of the short-cuts of analogy and abstraction. This is not to say that the oral skills are to be ignored, quite the contrary, but it is disastrous to delude oneself and others into believing that it is easier to learn first to speak than to read or to write the foreign language.

The recommendations state further: "No student should be asked to read a modern language that he does not aurally understand" (p. 29). This comment presumes, among other things, that secondary school students learn languages most rapidly and easily by aural training. This is highly doubtful. Most, it would seem, learn much more rapidly by visual experience. These facts aside, however, there is an even more serious error in the above suggestion; to deny the student the opportunity to read, at whatever stage, is to deny him the breadth and variety of language experience available in books and the stimulation of curiosity which they may provide. Here, and in fact underlying the entire proposal, is patent the erroneous premise that at the secondary school level the written language is an obstacle to the learning of a foreign language. The explanation for these misguided notions is likely to be found in the influence that FLES programs have exerted on the secondary school problem. The elementary and secondary requirements should not be confused by presuming that the needs of both are the same nor that the methods which would be most effective in one perforce apply to the other. The best way to teach a child is not necessarily the best way to teach an adolescent or an adult. Furthermore, the FLES programs in general are being projected over a longer period of time and as preparatory instruction for subsequent training in the secondary school. For this reason their requirements are unique. The document goes on to observe:

The ability to comprehend the written word is more thoroughly developed if *adequate time* has first been spent on learning to hear and speak the language. When these primary skills *have become automatic* in informal discussion, reading and writing can begin to play an important role in language behavior (italics mine, p. 29).

This has the ring of logic but contains serious deceptions. The first turns on the words "adequate time"; the question is, what amount of time is "adequate"? and then, can we find that much time in the students' program? Judging

from the sentence that follows the comment on "time," we must assume that the authors mean time enough for aural comprehension and speaking skills to "become automatic." Such skills become automatic only when a considerable degree of fluency has been attained. I would judge this would be accomplished in a very limited degree—without the aid of reading—at the earliest only after three years of secondary school instruction; even this would seem optimistic. Thus the student would ostensibly not read nor write the language until the last year of a four year program. Such a notion is utterly impractical and, of course, is not intended by the NASSP committee.

Instructional theories that are based upon premises which are as suspect as the above cannot lead to sound teaching nor satisfactory achievement. Sensible readjustment in present objectives can certainly be made, and proven oral techniques be incorporated into existing modes of instruction. Much of the potential success of a modified oral approach—which demands much more oral competence and ingenuity from the teacher—depends upon the availability of capable instructors. The fact that this committee recommends "that teachers of a modern foreign language should be able to speak fluently the language they teach" (p. 31) does not make such teachers available. Actually, anyone who has learned a foreign language in school and without the benefit of residence in the foreign country realizes that such a recommendation is highly unrealistic and could be fulfilled only by experience in the foreign environment or by extensive and continuous training from the elementary grades through graduation from college.

As was indicated at the outset of these remarks, the text criticised was chosen because it is representative of a widespread notion of language instruction. The earnestness of the authors of the recommendations is heartwarming and their interest in foreign languages is gratefully acknowledged. It is now our obligation to provide this enthusiasm with responsible counsel and to prevent subsequent disillusionment by providing sound pedagogical programs.

NED J. DAVISON

University of Oregon

Trends or Objectives in Retrospect

THIS article is offered as a supplement to "The New Look in Foreign Language Instruction" in *MLJ* for December, 1959, which lists the "dangers" in the present trend in foreign language teaching: a trend toward the use of electronic devices and emphasis on the aural-oral aspect of language.

Older teachers can recall the time when everyone who attended high school included at least one foreign language in his or her program. Many students followed the subject for four years.

It was thus that the "four-fold aim" came into being. Teachers assumed that students could and would develop the four skills: reading, writing, speaking, and (aural) understanding. With ample time at their disposal, teachers could and did secure good, often excellent, results. This writer recalls that with eight semesters available, his teachers guided him in the almost equal development of all four skills at all stages of advancing control of the new languages.

Here it must be noted that reading included translation, the rendering of French or German into good English. The teachers of those days were well trained in English; they did not accept as translation mere transverbalization.

Then there came upon this happy scene, doubtless rose-colored by retrospection, a black cloud, a reduction in the time the schools allotted to foreign languages. The time was reduced to two years. That was a blow. Some teachers tried in "heads-into-a-stonewall" fashion to cling to the traditional aim. That was about as futile as trying to force a quart of liquid into a pint jar. It could not be done.

In an attempt to fit methods and objectives to the reduction in time, a few hopeful teachers, this writer among them, tried a method called Reading Adjustment or Approach. This plan accepted the cut in time as inevitable, and undertook to give students a first or primary skill that could be mastered in four semesters. These teachers believed that ability to read French or German of moderate difficulty could

be acquired by a willing student if the course were not overloaded by attempts to impart other skills.

The advocates of the Reading Method also believed that ability to read had greater residual or retention value or possibilities than other language skills. After leaving the classroom, the student who had learned to read a foreign language could, if he so desired, always keep this ability alive.

Here it is well to pause and to note that the term "read" meant ability to understand the contents of the printed page without conscious or constant translation. Translation could be called upon to aid in solving complicated sentences or when many new words were involved.

To resume: aural-oral skills acquired in the classroom, with or without laboratory or other mechanical aids, may be quickly lost because of lack of opportunities to use them. Even the frantic attempts to impart in a short time some "spoken French" to "Our Boys" who were going to France in 1917-18 had negligible results or retention values. Some teachers even believed that some students who acquired ability to read could, if they so desired, add other language skills.

To be sure, in a world that is so vastly smaller than it has ever been before, the promoters of aural-oral activities believe that more and ever more Americans will find both need and occasion for speaking and hearing (with understanding) all sorts of foreign languages. In *MLJ* for March, 1960, Professor Freeman suggests a very new field of strange tongues to which Americans may need to give attention.

Yet, is it not possible that the benefits or advantages or aural-oral control of languages, even when buttressed by "push-button" miracles, are being presently overstressed? Is it going to be possible to produce, not millions, but even thousands of bi-or-multi-lingual Americans in the next few semesters or years? One wonders.

CHARLES E. YOUNG

Milwaukee School of Engineering

Audio-Visual Aids

I. FRANCE

1. Films:

Beginning French with Films. See "Beginning German with Films."

Claudine. 88 min. Feature film adapted from the French classic "Claudine à l'École" by Colette, with Pierre Brasseur and Blanchette Brunoy as stars. French narration with English titles. (Hoffberg)

La famille de Monsieur René. 16 min. Color. \$130. Upper middle class family in southern France. Father is a school inspector, mother a teacher. Son, 18 years old, flies a plane; daughter, in 2000-student school, rides jumping horses. Harbor scenes, public buildings of Perpignan. (Frith)

Secrets d'alcove. 101 min. Starring Vittorio de Sica. Three international diplomats and their chauffeur, fog-bound for the night in a railroad watchman's shack, recount four "bedtime" stories. (Brandon)

The Song of Jean Richepin. 13 min. Color. Rental: \$13. A hopeless lover complies with his mistress' request to bring his mother's heart to her pet dog. A bizarre and savage experiment from Mexico, based on a poem by the French symbolist poet, Jean Richepin. Erotic symbolism and disturbing subject matter made this one of the most controversial films of the 1958 Brussels Film Festival. (Cinema)

Thérèse Raquin (The Adultress) 106 min. Marcel Carne's Venice prize-winner from Zola's novel. Starring Simone Signoret, Raf Vallone. (Brandon)

2. Filmstrips:

Challenge for France. 57 frames. B&W. \$2.50. History of empires and republics, postwar striving to regain old glories. (NY Times)

Elementary French for Young Americans. Set of six filmstrips, color cartoon, devised to teach French in the elementary schools, by José Sánchez and Marie Antoinette Martin (Labora-

tory School, University of Chicago), adaptation from similar set in Spanish. German series also being prepared. (SVE)

3. Charts or Maps:

Series of 12 full-color charts, 27×36 inches, mounted on a single multiroller, complete with backboard, etc. \$125 per set, designed to assure speaking, reading and writing skills. Prepared by Léon Dostert. German set by Hugo Mueller, and Spanish by Dean Henry Grattan Doyle. These wall pictures constitute an old teaching device reshaped by this attractive presentation. (Bruce)

4. Records:

Une famille Bretonne. One 12" 78 rpm record. \$2.50. Complete narration in French from motion picture by the same name. (EBF)

French. Set of 4 records, of the well-known series "Circling the Globe," Wilmac releases. Original three have talks by native French men, young students from different parts of France, telling of their activities. Each talk is an intimate view of everyday life in France. A fourth record called "French Simplified," also consists of narrations by six students giving a wealth of information about their lives and France. Each record is \$5.95; set of 4 is \$21.50. Similar sets also in German and Spanish. (Wilmac)

Les rêves du jeune Hugo. 2 records, part of *Les soirées littéraires de la comédie française*. Study of the formation of Hugo's sensibility up to 1831. (French Cultural Services)

5. Slides:

Versailles and its Meaning. 50 slides and tapes, constituting a tape-slide lecture. \$48.75. French or English narration. (Culthist)

6. Tapes:

Madrigal's Magic Key to French. Based on the

Book *Magic Key to French*, by Margarita Madrigal and Colette Dulac. Three 7", 3.75 ips tapes; also useful for language laboratory. \$39.95. Also two 7", 7.5 ips, with book, no pauses, dual track. \$22.95. (Wible)

II. GERMANY

1. Films:

Beginning German with Films. A series of fifteen films, sold in a package consisting of films, tape recordings and text materials, designed to provide a complete course of study in College German. Developed according to "audio-visual-lingual" principles. Duration of each is four minutes and together they are designed to give the student an insight into the cultural background of Germany and to develop a clear and vivid picture of German contemporary life. 34 tape recordings, a 131-page student text. Price, color: \$825; B&W: \$565. Student's manual: \$3. French and Spanish packages are planned for release in late fall of 1960 and will be similar in format to the German package. Individual titles of the German: The Rhine, In the Country (2 parts), The Castles of Herrenchiemsee and Neuschwanstein, Popular Excursions, From Lake Constance to Switzerland, Old Towns, In Munich, Trier and Frankfurt, In the Tyrol, In Salzburg and the Tyrol, A trip on the Rhine, A few days on the Rhine, Fairs, Again in Munich. (McGraw-Hill)

Five Miles West. 16 min. Color. Free loan. The amazing economic recovery of West Germany, epitomized by the town of Wolfsburg. (Modern Talking)

Germany: Feudal States to Unification. 14 min. Color. \$137.50. Political development from 1815 to 1871. Filmed abroad. (Coronet)

The Revolt of Gunner Asch. 100 min. From bestseller by former Nazi officer. (Brandon)

The Rhine: Background for Social Studies. 11 min. color and B&W. Study of the Rhine River which offers an excellent method for understanding the economic interdependence of leading European nations. Geographical and historical correlations are developed. (Coronet)

2. Filmstrips:

Hansel and Gretel. 42 frames. Color \$7.50. The well-known story in attractive presentation. (RKO, and distributors)

3. Records:

German. Set of four 12" LP (also on 7½ ips tapes). Similar to French set by same producer. (Wilmac)

Invitation to German Poetry. One 12" 33½ rpm. 50 minutes. \$4.95. Also 165-page book translation and critical-biographical material on each poet. Goethe, Hölderlin, Heine, Rilke, Brecht, and 29 other great poets from the medieval minnesinger Walther von der Vogelweide to outstanding writers of our time are in the album. Read by Lotte Lenya, edited by Gustave Mathieu and Guy Stern. (Dover)

4. Tapes:

Wie heisse ich Series. Beginner's Level. Presents interviews between a narrator and a well-known character from history, fairy tales and other fiction. Narrator speaks partly in German and partly in English, while person interviewed speaks only in German. Series includes Columbus, Little Red Riding Hood, Goldilocks, Jack and the Beanstalk, Alice in Wonderland, Tom Sawyer, Paul Revere, B. Franklin, Davy Crockett. (EMC)

Till Eulenspiegel Series. Intermediate Level. A series of dramatized episodes in German, based on the exploits and pranks of the famous comic German folk hero. For second year school and early college. (EMC)

Das deutsche Leben Series. Intermediate Level. Typical events in German life, especially family and social life. Dramatized in simple German. Each tape includes two 15-minute programs, each consisting of three 5-minute episodes. (EMC)

Eins zum Andern. Intermediate Level. A collection of children's poems by Marie-Luise Scholl. Delightfully read in German by the author. (EMC)

Interview in Germany Series. Advanced Level. Recordings of famous contemporary Germans recorded in Germany. Voices of well-known Germans prominent in education, politics, government, industry and the arts interviewed on the spot. (EMC)

III. ITALY

1. Films:

Amici per la pelle (The Woman in the painting). 90 min. Rental. International Catholic

Office prize-winner. Franco Rossi's sensitive film of two adolescent boys. (Brandon)

Difendo il mio amore. 88 min. Italian-French co-operation starring Martine Carol, Gabriele Ferzetti, Vittorio Gassman and Charles Vanel in a story of yellow journalism which almost breaks up a family in Milan. (Brandon)

Life in Ancient Rome: The Family. 11 min. B&W and Color. Designed to bring to pupils a picture of life in ancient Rome. Shows ruins, forum, temple, fort and theater. The most authentic and complete reconstruction in existence. Story of Marcos as he goes to school, passing through streets of ancient Rome; shops are seen, markets and trading. His mother and her slave go shopping. Marcos does an errand for his father. Father closes fish shop, and he and Marcos go to the baths. Marcos is allowed to wear white toga, symbol of manhood. (Coronet)

N. U. 11 min. A somber revelation of an unexpected corner of urban life in Italy: the street cleaners, their faces, their work. An unusual achievement of the humanist cinema. \$10 rental. (Cinema 16)

2. Record:

Italian. One 12" LP (also on tape). Several young people tell of their experiences in various parts of Italy. Similar technique as French, Spanish, etc. of same producer. (Wilmac)

IV. RUSSIA

1. Films:

May Night. 58 min. Operetta with music by S. Pototsky. Based on the story "The Drowned Maiden" by Gogol. Russian dialogue with English titles. An Ukranian folk legend, combines the fantastic and the real with charming simplicity. Peasant girls, their work over, gather in the orchard of Panko the beekeeper to hear him tell a story. (Brandon)

Revizor. (The Inspector General) 128 min. Rental. Adapted from the original play by Nikolai Gogol. A satirical comedy, performed in Russia regularly. (Brandon)

Sadko. 88 min. Color. Apply for rental. Based on Rimsky-Korsakov's opera. A spectacular fairy tale pageant of the romantic adventure of a young minstrel from ancient Novgorod who sailed around the world in search of the bird of

happiness. Photographed in natural color. (Brandon)

Taras Shevchenko. Color 104 min. Sergei Bondarchuk starred in title role as favorite poet-patriot-musician of Ukranian, in reign of Tsar Nikolai I. Picturesque and panoramic. (Brandon)

2. Filmstrip:

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. Nine filmstrips. Color, about 50 frames each. Covers geography, background, natural resources, industries, the people, consumer goods, education, recreation, transportation and communication. (Eye Gate)

3. Records:

Essentials of Russian. Two 12" records, 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ rpm, also grammar and 44-page manual. \$10.70. Pronunciation, conversation and comprehension, by André von Gronicka and Helen Bates-Yakobson. (Dover)

Say it Correctly in Russian. A 14-minute 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ rpm record spoken by a native linguist, saying more than 110 phrases and sentences which cover a wide variety of situations; everyday life, travel, introducing yourself, autos, sight-seeing, hotels, restaurants, numerals, etc. Manual. \$1. (Dover)

V. SPAIN

1. Films:

Valencia Family. 16 min. Color \$130 Two boys, 18 and 13 years old, and their 16 year old sister make the Spanish family understandable to American students. (Frith)

2. Filmstrips:

Columbus. 25 frames. B&W \$3.50 Based on J. Arthur Rank production, starring Frederic March. (Recreational Guides)

Elementary Spanish for Young Americans. \$35.10 Set of six color filmstrips by José Sánchez and Audrey Castillo (Evanston Public Schools), especially designed for the elementary school level. Each strip is synchronized with a record; each strip is divided into four parts, including a review. Each word or phrase is repeated twice, with sufficient pause for student repetition. Titles: En la sala de clase, Después de la escuela, Con la familia, En casa, Por la

mañana, and El cumpleaños de Carlos. Set also adapted to French with collaboration of Marie Antoniette Martin, of Laboratory School, University of Chicago. German adaptation in preparation. (SVE)

3. Map:

Spain and Portugal. With Spanish text. Political, and physical. Varies in size. Apply for information. Also Latin American maps. (Denoyer-Geppert)

4. Realia:

Escopel Collection: Importers of books and visual-aids for teachers and students of Spanish. All materials distributed—maps, filmstrips, slides, books—are imported from Spain. Handles the famous Ancora slides. (Escopel)

VI. MISCELLANEOUS

1. Films:

Ancient Greece. 11 min. Color. Free loan. Against a background of the Parthenon, the Academia, the plain of Marathon, and a village of Sparta, one sees scenes of farming, industry, politics, religion, art and education. (Coronet)

Early Handling of Spinal Injuries. 18 min. Spanish version available. (Bray)

Europe and You. 25 min. Color. Free Loan. A beautifully photographed and charmingly narrated travelogue, with stops in Paris, Portugal, Copenhagen, a Greek fishing village, Venice, Rome, Madrid and the Swiss Alps. (Modern Talking)

Wonderful World. 43 min. Color. Free loan. Made for Coca-Cola. Scenes in 31 countries, including France, Italy, Germany and Spain. Shows 43 of the world's most colorful cities. (Handy)

2. Filmstrips:

Central Europe. Set of six color filmstrips, each \$6. Titles: Mountains and villages in Switzerland, Austrian Alps, People of West Germany, The Netherlands and the Sea, Rural Belgium, and The Rhine River. (EBF)

Countries of Western Europe. Nine silent filmstrips, about 42 frames each, in color. Covers nine western European countries: Austria, Belgium, Western Germany (two parts), The Netherlands, Portugal, Turkey

(two parts), and Yugoslavia. Way of life, customs, and industries. Also Manual. (Eye Gate)

VII. TEACHING MATERIALS

1. Films:

Beginning German, French, Spanish With Films. See "German"

Instructo Film. Series of seven films, 16 min. each, B&W, \$55 each. Helpful drawings, lively music and oral commentary. A modern tool kit for teaching and reviewing the basic principles of the Spanish language. Prepared and presented by Professor L. G. Bayo. Each film may be used as separate unit, with its own printed guide. Titles: Pronunciation and Accent, Gender and numbers, Ser and Estar, Verbs, Adverbs, Pronombres Personales, Verbos regulares. (Audivision)

Introducing the Language (Spanish). 11 min. 1959. Color and B&W. Attempt to take the student beyond the classroom into the real world where Spanish is not a discipline but a means of communication used everyday by real people. Dialogue is in Spanish restaurant in New York. Colorful scenes of activities typical of the Spanish-speaking world. A Spanish song and common expressions are taught. (Coronet)

2. Filmstrips:

Classroom filmstrips. Spanish. \$3.95 B&W. Intended to teach simple Spanish. Also "classroom pictures," set of large illustrations. (Fideler)

Unesco Fables. Color. \$4.50. Manual in English, French or Spanish. (Unesco)

3. Records:

Latin Language. One 12" 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ rpm. \$5.90 Readings in Latin and English, including readings from Andronicus, Plautus, Cato, Cicero, Lucretius, Catullus, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, Tacitus, St. Thomas Aquinas. (Brentano)

Learn Fluent Spanish. Two 12" LP. Space for repetition. Narrated by native Latin American. Material based on typical travel and other everyday situations. (Wilmac)

Speak my Language. Two 10" LP \$4.95. For primary grades, ages 8 to 13. (Dover)

JOSÉ SÁNCHEZ

University of Illinois, Chicago

KEY TO DISTRIBUTORS AND PRODUCERS

Audivision Language Teaching Service, 100 Church St., N. Y. 17

Brandon Films Co., 200 W. 57th St., N. Y. 18

Brentano's, Inc., 586 Fifth Ave., N. Y. City

Bray Studio, Inc., 729—7th St., N. Y. 19

Bruce Publishing Co., 400 N. Broadway, Milwaukee 1, Wis.

Castle Films, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, N. Y. City, and other cities

Cinema 16, Dept. BB, 175 Lexington Ave., N. Y. 16

Coronet Films, 65 E. So. Water St., Chicago 1, Ill.

Creole Petroleum Corp., 1230 Ave. of the Americas, N. Y. City

Culthist: Cultural History Research, Harrison 1, N. Y.

Denoyer-Geppert, 5235 Ravenswood Ave., Chicago 40, Ill.

Dover Publishing Co., 920 Broadway, N. Y. 10

EBF: Encyclopoedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Ill.

Educational Guides, 10 Brainerd Rd., Summit, N. J.

EMC Recordings Corp., 806 East Seventh St., St. Paul 6, Minn.

Escopel Co., 103 Harrison St., Verona, N. J.

Eye Gate House, Inc., 146-01 Archer Ave., Jamaica, N. Y.

Fideler Co., The, 31 Ottawa Ave., N.W., Grand Rapids 2, Mich.

French Cultural Services, 972 Fifth Ave., N. Y. 21

Frith Films, 1816 N. Highland, Hollywood 28, Calif.

Handy: Jam Handy Organization, 2821 E. Grand Blvd., Detroit, Mich.

Hoffberg Productions, Inc., 362 W. 44th St., N. Y. 18

McGraw-Hill, Film Division, 330—42nd St., N. Y. 36

Methodist Publishing House, 201 8th Ave. S., Nashville 2, Tenn.

Modern Talking Pictures Service, 3 East 54th St., N. Y. 22; Chicago: 216 E. Superior St.

NY Times, Educational Activities, 229 W. 43rd St., N. Y. 30

RKO, 1270 Ave. of the Americas, N. Y. 20

SVE: Society for Visual Education, 1345 W. Diversey, Chicago 14

Texas: University of Texas, Visual Instruction Bureau, Austin, Tex.

UN Film Board, United Nations Film Division, 42nd at 1st Ave., N. Y. 17

Wible Language Institute, Hamilton Law Bldg., Allentown, Pa.

Wilmac Recorders, 921 East Green St., Pasadena, Calif.

* * *

In seeking the broad purposes of a liberal education, we shall probably remain confused and in disagreement over the spectrum of subject matter which should be covered. Whatever metes and bounds one might establish there will still remain the need for a unifying agent. There are those so bold as Sir Eric Ashby of Cambridge, who sees the unifying agent between the liberal and the specialized as being technology itself, if properly taught. In seeking a unifying agent, I would suggest a return to an original conception of the liberal arts and suggest that we reassess and re-emphasize the role of language. The proposition is so simple that it hardly needs to be stated. Language is the bridge between subject matter, not only within the liberal arts but between the liberal arts and specialized areas. It is the central humanizing agent. The mastery of it, so that the student

can write and speak with ease, will carry over into the whole field of learning.

Thus, one of the prime functions of liberal education is to perfect the system of language and to expand it into the universe of thought through practice in speaking and writing. Then and then only can we read the great books and return again and again to the wisdom of the ages for intellectual refreshment and reawakening of our sense of values. Then too we shall have a better basis for bridging the gaps between areas of learning. Students so equipped and then subjected to a program in arts and sciences as well as the professions, if desired, will enjoy greater freedom and liberation of the intellect. They too will respond to the great imperatives.

President J. WAYNE REITZ

University of Florida

* * *

Notes and News

The Language Laboratory in Teacher Training

During the 1960 spring semester monitoring in the Mount Mary College Modern Language Laboratory was made a part of the Teaching of Spanish methods course. For the two semester credit hours methods course the future teachers met one hour a week in the classroom for demonstration teaching and discussions and one hour a week monitoring in the laboratory. Each student was in complete charge of the laboratory for a specific hour throughout the semester. In addition, each student was required to keep a log of everything that occurred during each laboratory session that she monitored.

It was intended that the "internship" as a monitor in the language laboratory would provide the novice teachers the opportunity to see at first-hand the functional purpose that the laboratory serves, the complementary and supplementary addition it provides in the teaching of foreign languages, and to gain experience in formulating laboratory lessons.

From the first day the teachers became acquainted with the laboratory set-up:

- (1) the organization of the bulletin board in the control room—the weekly schedule of tapes, the individual booth assignment sheet, the "monitor-on-duty" schedule;
- (2) the setting-up of tapes for the specific lab period;
- (3) the work table—to indicate the materials to be used for the various tape assignments;
- (4) roll call (laboratory here is required of all language students and is scheduled as a normal class);
- (5) the keeping of absence and improvement charts.

Aside from the routine duties of monitoring, the future teachers were able to observe at first-hand various tape exercises in action, such as, the student's active participation in the repetition exercise; the passive exercise of listening only; singing or reading along with the taped voice; quizzes on tape; students answering questions based on an idiom list—intended as a review lesson. The student-teachers kept a log and recorded student reactions to the various taped exercises. One log commentary indicated that errors or irregularities in pronunciation were due to the fact that the student was not listening, and that a laxness was caused by a lack of variety in exercises or excessive drill of the same grammatical principle.

Since these students were preparing to teach high school students, they gained invaluable experience in confronting and solving problems which are unique to the language laboratory, such as: (1) silly singing or tapping feet to the music while singing, (2) unnecessary talking when one tape is over before the others, (3) late arrivals or those who attempt to leave before end of tape, (4) students who come in to make-up tapes, (5) students slouched in chairs and,

so, too far removed from microphone, (6) showing of a film in the lab which is not being shown to all students, (7) unnecessary materials in the individual booths, (8) students' improper centering of control buttons, (9) students listening to other tapes, (10) students studying for other classes in the booths, (11) emergency repair of tapes and equipment. There are numerous problems, but the point to be made here is that these students, during their "internship" in a language laboratory confronted real-life, not theoretical, situations and learned how to cope with them.

In addition to the basic monitoring duties, other invaluable language laboratory teaching experiences were interpolated. These included: (1) individual assistance in pronunciation to students who had reported to the laboratory for a tape recording, (2) setting up tape for and recording an individual student's voice, (3) preparing critiques of tape recordings of individual students (to give the novice teacher experience in spotting errors in pronunciation and the planning of remedial work), (4) transcribing script from prepared tape which had no accompanying script, (5) checking the recording of a literary work with the text of a textbook, (6) evaluation of tape recordings of spontaneous oral talks by second semester students in which the novice teacher was to determine reasons for hesitation on student's part (knowledge of vocabulary and verb forms, errors in pronunciation of unfamiliar words, errors in verb-subject agreement, errors in noun-adjective agreement, use of idioms), (7) making additional copies of tapes, (8) preparation and recording of a script (to learn the importance of spacing in recording and the variety of exercises, to hear one's "teaching voice," to learn of the planning involved in preparation of a tape for class use), (9) further recording of scripts already prepared, (10) analyses of recorded impromptu student-teacher conversations (to make novice teacher aware of methods of illiciting conversation from students, of making use of certain vocabulary and grammatical principles, and of the importance of immediate correction of errors and repetition of corrections).

This period of "internship" was intended (1) to give the students a practical insight into the place of the language laboratory in the teaching of a language—in this case, Spanish, (2) to demonstrate clearly the importance of monitoring and the extent to which other language laboratory teaching duties can be interpolated with the monitoring duties. This "internship" more than clearly illustrated to the future teachers the results of both the well-planned and the inadequately-planned tapes for language laboratory lessons.

LEONOR ANDRADE

*Mount Mary College
Milwaukee, Wisconsin*

Book Reviews

Elementary French Series, Book 1

RAYMOND, M. AND CLAUDE L. BOURCIER, *Bonjour, Teachers' Edition*, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1959, pp. v+137.

MOTHER RAYMOND DE JÉSUS, *Je sais lire, Teachers' Edition*, Holy Ghost French Series, Book 3. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1959, pp. v+161.

MOTHER RAYMOND DE JÉSUS, *Je lis avec joie, Teachers' Edition*, Holy Ghost French Series, Book 4. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1959, pp. vi+170.

Bonjour is an adaptation from Book 1 of the Holy Ghost French Series, written by Mother Raymond de Jésus with Right Reverend Monsignor Henry C. Bezon and Professor Arsène Croteau serving as editorial consultants. In the adaptation all of the religious elements have been omitted.

Designed as a beginning text at the primary school level, this book has been carefully prepared by authors who have obviously a thorough knowledge of the learning processes of younger children and considerable experience in teaching French at that level. The teachers' edition is composed of two sections: the children's text and a manual for the teacher.

Since the teaching is to be entirely oral, the children's text consists solely of pictures grouped around the following topics for conversation: the family, classroom, house, Christmas, winter, parts of the body, gifts of nature and farm animals. The authors have wisely guarded against the temptation to present an overly ambitious program, the most common fault of manuals planned for this level. The new material comes in small, easily assimilated units and the importance of constant review is stressed. Brightly colored pictures would have made the book more attractive to children and, in the reviewer's opinion, would have been worth the increased cost.

The teachers' manual contains much worthwhile practical advice which the inexperienced teacher will do well to follow. For example, "To introduce *la famille*, use again the picture on page 7, and have on hand other pictures of families. The pupils might bring snapshots of their own families or pictures cut from a magazine. Have the pupils repeat *la famille* as you show various pictures of families." Colored pictures clipped from the magazines are an endless source of supplementary material.

The authors leave the choice of whether or not to teach the *tu* form to the discretion of the teacher. This can easily be done since the children's text contains only pictures. In the manual only the *vous* form is given (except for slips on pages 15 and 22).

This is a fine addition to the rapidly increasing list of French texts for young children.

Je sais lire has the same format as *Bonjour* and on the whole follows the same well-tested procedures. The transition to reading is made cautiously. Care is taken that children encounter in print only words with which they are already thoroughly familiar and which they pronounce without hesitation. This is a critical stage in the child's acquisition of a foreign language. Great damage may be done to the good accent already acquired if children are allowed to meet unfamiliar words in their early reading experience. In fact I question the advisability of introducing sight words for pronunciation as early as this book advocates. It is my contention that pupils should not be allowed to work on sight material at all during the first year of reading experience.

There are many ingenious devices for making the first steps of reading easy. A typical exercise consists of a picture with three words beside it. The pupils are asked to underline the word which describes the picture.

The children's interest is aroused by the printing of the photograph of a real French girl, Marie-Yolande, on the first page of their text. Throughout the year they read letters from her in her own handwriting. Numerous games and songs provide variety enough to hold the attention of even the squirmiest youngster.

Je lis avec joie, following the same pattern as its predecessor, takes the pupils through many commonplace adventures which are nonetheless fascinating for a child and, in the process, succeeds in imparting a wide and highly practical vocabulary. By the time they have reached the end of this volume, the children should have acquired some facility in the language over a wide range of everyday subjects.

CHARLES W. COLEMAN

University of Nebraska

DANINOS, PIERRE, *Les Carnets du Major Thompson*. Edited by Andrée M. L. Barnett and Robert E. Helbling. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1959.

Daninos' amusing tour de force in the form of a supposed Englishman's comments on France has been a best-seller since its publication in 1954. "Il s'impose, by Jove," as a French reader. Where else can one find so much shrewd observation couched in the form of good-humored spoofing? For the American student, of course, the humor is doubled since we laugh at John Bull at the same time that we howl at the irresistibly funny ways of the French. "But there is no civilization material to be found in this text," some humorless pedagogue will protest. No? There is more commentary, although it be indirect, in this sort of book than

in all the civilization readers ever written! But this is not to advise the teacher who dislikes this sort of book to adopt it. If the potential user reads Daninos' remarks without finding them funny, he had better choose something else.

For those who do admire and find attractive this kind of reading material, a few words of warning must be given. This is not an easy text. Despite all the footnotes and the whimsical explanations offered by the author as commentaries on the text, there remain genuine textual difficulties here. Vocabulary, both normal and of the slang variety, is fairly advanced. This fact need not frighten either student or teacher, but it is well to know what one faces. Many notes per page, many hard words not explained in notes, such will be the students' lot. Personally I say let's go to it. Major Thompson is worth it. But don't say I didn't warn you!

L. CLARK KEATING

University of Cincinnati

GRANT, E. M., SACHS, M., AND GRANT, R. B. *French Stories, Plays, and Poetry*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1959, pp. viii+243. \$2.95.

The attractive paper cover on this new anthology carries the label "A First-Year College Reader." Although the editors recommend its use after 6 to 8 weeks of work in the average beginning class, this reviewer would use it no earlier than mid-year. There is enough material for about 20 lessons, many of which would fill at least two class periods of recitation.

The reader opens with 15 pages of epigrams in prose and poetry, with authors ranging from Rabelais and La Bruyère to moderns such as Courteline and Prévert. There follows the short radio drama, "Huit Chevaux, quatre cylindres . . . et pas de truites!" by Jean-Jacques Bernard.

Up to this point verbs are mostly in the present tense, and any other tenses are explained in the footnotes; now comes a detailed explanation of the *passé simple*, which will be used in the short stories to follow, and a brief treatment of the past anterior and the subjunctive.

Selections in the rest of the book are from both classic and modern authors. Maupassant is represented by "Le Parapluie" and "En Voyage." There are stories by A. France, l'Abbé Prévost, Hugo, de Vigny, and Mérimée, a one-act comedy by Georges Feydeau and a short play by Courteline, scenes from two plays of Molière, a good representation of poems, and three short passages from the Bible.

"La Chambre bleue" of Mérimée puts the reader very definitely into the category of books not to be read in high school, hence the previously mentioned label "College Reader." Some shortening and simplification have been done in "Le Parapluie," "Aventure d'un désespéré" by l'Abbé Prévost, and de Vigny's "Richelieu et Louis XIII," a chapter from *Cinq-Mars*.

There are exercises for each selection, consisting of questions to be answered in French plus vocabulary exercises of the blank-filling type, some translation from English to French, and some substitution exercises for drill in verb tenses and pronouns. The average number of questions to be answered in French for each unit is 25.

With its attractive topography this is an excellent elementary reader with adult material that is not too difficult.

Although no attempt has been made to grade the materials with word frequency counts, the arrangement is obviously that of beginning with the easiest and progressing to the more difficult. Idioms and unusual turns of expression seem to be adequately handled in the footnotes. There is an end vocabulary of approximately 2300 words.

V. J. GINGERICH

Mankato State College

Mankato, Minn.

HAAC, OSCAR A., STROZIER, WILLIAM A., AND WILLIS, WILLIAM S., *Points de vue*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959, pp. vi+307. \$3.75.

Written for the college student of the intermediate level, this reading-approach-to-conversation- and conversational-approach-to-reading-text assumes that such a student has a good command of the French language. Quite different from others of this type, this text is organized on the basis of a progressive complexity of ideas. The selections are grouped under the categories of "imagination, interprétations, amour, mythes politiques, intelligence, réalité et idéal." These selections, comprised of prose and poetry, are a sampling of French literature from the XVIIth century to modern times, including some writers heretofore very seldom seen in American textbooks. To illustrate the themes concerned, the authors have chosen carefully and judiciously the literary excerpts, which include such French stylists as Gide. It is believed that biographical and critical information should have been furnished as an introduction to each selection. Apparently, none of the selections is simplified. I was particularly pleased with the Mis'ral excerpt for the very simple reason that the American student enjoys French slang.

Each selection is followed by a conversation inviting the student to compare his "assumptions" with those of the authors. It has been this reviewer's experience in connection with such question and answer conversations that the average American student, contrary to the expressed wishes of the authors, agrees with the "point de vue" expressed and does not formulate his own conclusions. Perhaps such a conversation should be provided only for the instructor.

I am not certain that this text is one to be used in conversation classes. If so, it then appears that the length of the selections poses a problem, for some selections are not short enough to be completed in one assignment. The exercises are varied and consist of both the written and oral type, true-false, discussion, multiple choice, and exposé. The value of such exercises is questioned. What purpose is served by written exercises in a conversation class? Exercise drill on material read is a method which kills interest in reading. Certainly, oral work on the material read is valuable, but the skillful teacher evokes greater interest when the oral drill is spontaneous.

The footnotes, in French, are certainly adequate and explain all vocabulary words unless these be COGNATES, all of which are capitalized. Some confusion results from the boldface, the capitals, and the italics to be found, quite frequently, in the same line of print. In connection with

the footnotes, all English necessary to their comprehension is italicized. *Pêcheur* (p. 63, l. 61) might have been included in the footnotes to distinguish it from *pêcheur* of the preceding page. The addition of *escrimeur* (p. 74, l. 132) would likewise be of help. The reference system for footnotes might have been simplified by using numbers.

The student is invited to learn or review all words starred (these represent the basic terms in *Le français élémentaire*) in the end-vocabulary. Idioms in this vocabulary are listed under the double heading. Irregular verb forms are noted as single entries. The end-vocabulary is preceded by a page entitled "Hints for recognizing French words through English equivalent." Might it not have been wiser to place this page in the front of the textbook? Based on those hints, I feel that the English for *ancêtres* (p. 8), for *étranger* (p. 3, n. 49) and *étrangler* (p. 27, n. 203) should have been omitted.

I observed an occasional typographical error, such as *ful* (p. 213, l. 70) for *fût*; *incidates* (Introduction to the vocabulaire, p. 241) should read *indicates*.

An introduction, a conclusion, sixteen pages of illustrations, and notes on the twelve illustrators complete the text.

This reviewer wishes to conclude that the remarks regarding this text should in no way diminish the value of it. It is adult, mature, and the student will acquire a good reading knowledge. It is a book which is adaptable both to classes conducted entirely in French and to those in which there is an occasional need for some English discussion. Every teacher in favor of the oral method would find satisfaction with this book, which can be used for reading practice as well as for conversation.

ROBERT N. RIOUX

University of Maine

CARDONA, RODOLFO (ed.), *Novelistas españoles de hoy*. New York: Norton, 1959. x+271 pp. \$3.00. Subtitle: Cuatro novelas cortas de la España contemporánea: El piano (Carmen Laforet); Timoteo, el incomprendido (Camilo José Cela); La vocación (Juan Antonio de Zunzunegui); El turco de los nardos (Ramón Gómez de la Serna).

These four short novels are preceded by an excellent introduction (in English) on the historical development of the short narrative in Spanish literature along with an analysis of the work of each author represented. In addition there is a short biography of each author, a useful *Tabla cronológica*, the usual set of exercises and a section called *Discusiones literarias*. The latter (in English) contains very helpful questions dealing with plot, technique and style which should prove of great value as a guide to both instructor and student alike. The vocabulary is more than adequate with many informative entries. There are also numerous footnotes to explain many of the most difficult passages.

The stories, chosen and arranged in order of difficulty, are good examples of the work of their authors, probably the most outstanding in the field at present. "El piano" is long (75 pages), with almost no action but a delicate psychological study of a young woman and her marriage, most

of the subtle points of which would likely be missed by the average student but perhaps appreciated by the more discerning. The second story is an amusing caricature of a dabbler in modernistic art and his Swedish wife. However, the large doses of colloquial language, although explained in the footnotes or vocabulary, are of questionable value to the student. The third story, "La vocación," should appeal to students struggling to affirm their own personalities and choose a profession which only too often causes family conflicts such as the one depicted in the young artist striving to live his own life apart from his family and make a name for himself. The last novel, a love story set amidst a group of Turkish, Polish and Lithuanian immigrants in Spanish America, while interesting enough as regards plot and characters, has very little Spanish flavor. The extensive use of unusual words makes this novelette rather a chore for any but the advanced student.

The text is attractively bound and printed with no obvious misprints, very well edited indeed. The chief criticism lies in the choice of story, admitted even by the Editor in his Preface, which, because of language difficulties and psychological subtleties, leaves something to be desired for intermediate students.

EVELYN RUGG

University of Toronto

MYKOLA OHLOBLYN-HLOBENKO. *Istoryko-literaturni statti*. Compiled by Ivan Košeliveč. Memoirs of the Ševčenko Scientific Society. Vol. CLXVII. Paris-Munich, 1958. 160 pages.

In the book under review, Ivan Košeliveč has compiled the best critical works of Mykola Ohloblyn-Hlobenko (1902-1957), a distinguished Ukrainian literary scholar and co-editor of the voluminous *Encyklopedija ukrajinoznavstva*.

With the exception of a few papers on the old Ukrainian literature of baroque, Taras Ševčenko, Adam Mickiewicz and the Ukrainian literature, and the 150th anniversary of the University of Xarkiv, the book contains six papers dealing with the authors of our century. Lesja Ukrajinka, Oleksander Oles', Mykola Xvyl'ovyj, Oleh Ol'žyc as well as the writers of Ukrainian Renaissance of the 1920's were subjects of Hlobenko's intensive study.

Hlobenko's survey of the Ukrainian prose in 1920's is one of his most important and interesting papers. The author took an active part in the literary life of this period and was personally acquainted with most of the writers he discusses. This enabled him to give an accurate picture of the unprecedented flourishing of the Ukrainian literature following the short-lived Ukraine's independence from Russia. The literary trends as well as the works of Mykola Xvyl'ovyj (1893-1933), Hryhorij Kosynka (1899-1934), Valerijan Pidmohyl'nyj (1901-1939?), Jurij Janovs'kyj (1902-1954) and others are analyzed by Hlobenko with deep insight into the subject. The unknown details of these writers' biographies help a great deal to understand the conditions in which Ukrainian authors struggled against the Kremlin's pressure on Ukrainian culture. Many of them fell in this unequal struggle and were executed, like

Kosynka, or deported to Siberian and Far East concentration camps where they disappeared without a trace. The total loss to the Ukrainian literature under the Soviet regime exceeds two hundred authors.

To summarize briefly, we must say that Hlobenko's book is very informative, as well as objective. This is an authoritative work on the leading Ukrainian authors of the twentieth century.

The book has foreword, with a biographical sketch of Hlobenko, by Professor V. Kubijovyč.

YAR SLAVUTYCH

U. S. Army Language School

VACLAV L. BENES, ROBERT F. BYRNES AND NICHOLAS SPULBER, eds., *The Second Soviet-Yugoslav Dispute. Full Text of Main Documents April-June 1958, with an Introductory Analysis.* (Slavic and East European Series. Vol. XIV) 1959. Indiana University. 272 pp.

The editors ought to be given credit for doing an extremely effective and scholarly job. R. F. Byrnes contributes an account of the historical background of the Soviet-Yugoslav dispute. He gives particular emphasis to the independence of the League of Communists of Yugoslavia (LCY) from Soviet control as the leading cause of the dispute. The failure of Stalin to liquidate a state not under Soviet control and the influence of this failure on the Polish and Hungarian uprisings are put in proper perspective.

Vaclav Benes in "Dispute: Ideology and Practice" reviews the events and causes of the failure of the policy of rapprochement inaugurated by Khrushchev's visit to Belgrade.

In "Economic Relations among Socialist States and the Soviet Model" Nicholas Spulber provides an analysis which helps to understand the economic factors in the dispute.

The Russian, Chinese, Yugoslav, Polish and Hungarian documents relating to the second dispute, and including part of the Ljubljana program, are included in the work.

The editors do their best to point out the conflict engendered by the "Separate Roads to Socialism" principle and Yugoslav foreign policy, in its relationship to the West. It is true, also (see p. 248) that the Yugoslavs have supported the cause of Communism in the international area. Their voting in the UN bears this out.

After Stalin's death the Communist Party of the Soviet Union relaxed the rigor of its rule at home, and Khrushchev started a policy of toning down to a certain extent the harsh treatment of the Soviet satellites for which it had been under constant attack from the League of Communists of Yugoslavia. In this period of relaxation came the policy of rapprochement with the LCY, the aim of which was to bring it back under Soviet control. The Hungarian and Polish events speeded a showdown with the Yugoslavs.

It should be emphasized that the Yugoslavs claim that their interpretation of Marxism-Leninism helped to put the relations between Communist countries on a better and more solid basis. Mr. Khrushchev has shown flexibility

both within the Communist world and in the international field, particularly toward Yugoslavia. It is hard to believe, however, that any Communist land may relax its oppressive regime at home without risking too much. The Yugoslavs say that history has already proved them right, but right or wrong, this will not make their criticism more palatable to Moscow.

JANKO N. JANKOVIC

Foreign Service Institute,
Dept. of State,
Washington 25, D. C.

E. A. MOORE AND GLEB STRUVE. *Practical Russian. Book II.* London, Edward Arnold and Co., (Distributed in America by St. Martin's Press, 175—5th Ave., N. Y. 10), 1946. 138 pp.

From time to time, reviews will appear in these columns of books brought out abroad, even though they may not be of most recent vintage. The present volume, it strikes the reviewer, would be extremely useful, as a review text, or for use as soon as a class has completed the essentials of Russian.

There are twelve chapters, with about a half dozen review lessons. Each lesson consists of a reading portion, taken from Soviet newspapers or from literary masterpieces (both prose and poetry). This is followed by questions for conversational drill, grammatical exposition, exercises, including of completion and substitution type and sentences for translation into Russian, and finally, subjects for free composition. There is an end but no lesson vocabulary.

Grammatical explanations are lucid and confined to important points. Exercises, though conventional, drill adequately the main principles stressed in each lesson. A number of the reading selections bear the imprint of World War II, with descriptions of wartime existence in the USSR, exploits of the Red Army, and the like. All in all, the readings represent a refreshing variety and ought to prove interesting.

A valuable feature, which ought to be imitated more in American texts, is the recapitulation after every four lessons of the most important idioms, together with a selection of "word-families." (Russian lends itself admirably to the "root" approach.)

As the book was produced in conformity with wartime "economy standards" the paper is below the quality of present-day texts. Typography is carefully done. The size of the print is large in all but the grammatical portions. In these italics are often used effectively to emphasize certain points.

In a short span this text covers a surprisingly large amount of ground with thoroughness.

Each lesson contains a sketch pertinent to the subject of the readings, and which enhances the visual appeal of the text.

JACOB ORNSTEIN

U. S. Dept. of Agriculture,
Graduate School,
Washington 25, D. C.

DÜRRENMATT, FRIEDRICH, *Der Besuch der alten Dame*. Edited by Paul Kurt Ackermann. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, pp. xi+223. \$2.45.

We welcome the appearance of second-year readers such as this which are intended to introduce the student to literature of true merit as well as develop his vocabulary. Unfortunately, however, we have great reservations concerning this particular reader.

The text of the play is presented on a single side of the page. The use of the other side is explained in the editor's Preface: "Dürrenmatt's language is not difficult. Because of this it has been possible to use the pages facing the text not primarily for the translations of difficult words but rather for various devices which are intended to facilitate vocabulary study and to familiarize the student with the construction of German words. Wherever advisable, related nouns, adjectives and verbs are given for words treated on the left-hand page." This sounds fine, but how does it affect the editing here?

Notes are generous, with an average of ten or more lines annotated per thirty-five line page. The inclusion of much first-year material in the notes may serve the purpose of review, but this is done only by sacrificing any hope of studying the play as literature. To annotate the sentence, "Dass wir Ihnen im übrigen die gleiche Hochachtung und Freundschaft entgegenbringen wie zuvor, versteht sich von selbst." (p. 93), the editor supplies:

left over, remaining; *im übrigen lit.* in the remaining, i.e. as for the rest, in other respects; cf. *übrigens* moreover, incidentally. *Hochachtung*: *achten* to respect, have regard for; *achten auf* to pay attention to; die Achtung respect, regard, attention (*Achtung!* attention! watch out!); *die Hochachtung* (high) regard, esteem; cf. also at the end of a letter: *hochachtungsvoll* respectfully (yours)

2. *entgegenbringen*: *bringen*, a, a to bring; *entgegenbringen*, a, a to bring towards, offer. *versteht sich von selbst*: *Verstehen*, a, a to understand; *von selbst* all by itself; *es versteht sich von selbst* it is completely obvious; cf. *selbstverständlich* obvious

Truly the woods can't be seen for the trees!

Assuming the teacher is willing to fracture a Dürrenmatt play for the sake of vocabulary building, he will still find troublesome inconsistencies in the editing of this text. On page 5 we read the fragment "Im Gasthof zum goldenen Apostel" but find no note concerning the naming of German inns. The inn is again named on the next page and still without a note; on page 29, however, "den goldenen Apostel" requires such attention. The common construction "die beiden" is used eight times on page 31 alone and not noted; on page 127 it is translated. Similarly, "gemächlich" appears on page 77 but is not translated until its reappearance on page 103. "Angelegenheit" is used twice on page 83 and first translated in a note to page 113. We do not understand how these delayed translations are "to facilitate vocabulary study" nor do we find a need for many of the other entries, among which the following are outstanding:

der Eunuch, -en, -en eunuch (p. 54)

Ike=Eisenhower (p. 78)

Volkswagen German automobile (p. 122)

Life name of a magazine (p. 132)

In sum, we find it hard to recommend this reader because we feel its editing is suited for a first-year book while its text, if it is to be studied as a piece of literature, deserves a less cluttered presentation than we find here. With respect to the latter consideration, it should be noted that a brief introduction by the editor and a brief *Nachwort* (in English) by the author do offer some assistance in interpreting the play.

The type used for the text of the play is quite readable; typographical errors are few: "ihnen" (p. 89, l. 15) must read "Ihnen" and "Traktandum" (p. 163) becomes "Traktandum" in its note. The paper binding helps keep the price down and the cover design is tastefully colorful.

JOHN R. RUSSELL

Wabash College
Crawfordsville, Ind.

HENRY M. HOENIGSWALD, *Language Change and Linguistic Reconstruction*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1960. Pp. viii+168. \$5.00.

This is obviously a labor of love, performed by a man who is a profound scholar in the traditional field of historical linguistics, and who at the same time wants to bring to that field the techniques of synchronic or descriptive linguistics.

The first question the reviewer must ask himself is whether the author has succeeded in his implied purpose, which is to "translate" our accumulated knowledge in the historical field into the "language" of the descriptivists. Of this there is no doubt. Whether the task is worth while is a legitimate question. Professor Hoenigswald devotes nearly 200 pages and a great deal of authentic information to regaling us with conclusions which are, in the main, logical and accurate, even if they are not novel; but his demonstration could have been offered in half the space, and with ten times the clarity that his method permits.

Some years ago, this reviewer was asked to collaborate in the compilation of a *Dictionary of Linguistics*. To make sure that the terminology used by the descriptivists would not be overlooked, he sought the additional collaboration of a colleague (Eugene Dorfman) who had been thoroughly trained in the descriptive field and who was actually teaching a course in Linguistic Terminology. Today, only six years later, that work is hopelessly outdated. In Professor Hoenigswald's book we run not only into the trappings of higher mathematics (A, A', A'', (6''), x, y, etc.), but also into such terms as *contrastive environment*, *adumbrated*, *interpolation*, *extrapolation*, *reconstructability* (I should prefer *reconstructibility* if I felt I had to use that word). At one point, the author feels he has gone too far in offering *idiolect corpora* (p. 13), so he gives us a gloss (*languages*). Elsewhere (p. 50, for instance) he uses many words that are either unusual or used in highly unusual fashion (*morphophonemic alternations*, *trivial*, *diagnostic*) to tell us that you have *roof-roofs* vs. *knife-knives*, and *honor-honoris* vs.

flos-floris, and that the workings of analogy are unpredictable (note also, p. 47: "our powers of synchronic analysis are not sufficient to give us much understanding of the subtle analogic changes presumably at work").

There is a suggestion one might offer the descriptivists for their own good: it is that each time they write a book they append a glossary giving precise definitions of all terms not used in accordance with the dictionary definitions, or not appearing in standard dictionaries. This would also eliminate the often hopeless confusion arising from the fact that they do not all use the same innovations in the same meanings.

Professor Hoenigswald's factual examples are generally above reproach. But he, too, is fallible. On p. 34, he describes the replacement in Italian of Latin *avunculus* and *patruus*, and states: "Here it is reasonable to think that such a phrase as the explicit *matris fratres*, 'mother's brothers', is the proper replacement for *avunculi*." Actually, the Italian term is *zii materni*, opposed to *zii paterni*; a look into the Italian dictionary might have been worth more than the hypothetical reconstruction. He refers (p. 157) to "the fact that *caballa*, 'mare', is common to a group of central Romance languages, as against *equa* on the periphery." Meyer-Lübke's *Romanisches etymologisches Wörterbuch* gives Rumanian *iapă*, Logudorese *ebba*, Rumansch *eka*, *iefna*, French *ive* (replaced only in the 13th century, and then by *jument*), Franco-Provençal *iva*, Provençal *eka*, Catalan *egua*, *euga*, Spanish *yegua*, Portuguese *egoa*. This makes the periphery quite extensive, and the "group of central Romance languages" seems to be limited to mainland Italian.

If Professor Hoenigswald did not use his critical judgment in connection with the lateral areas theory so favored by many historical Romance scholars, he does seem to show some healthy skepticism with regard to structuralism (p. 155) and glottochronology (p. 159). "If an absolute rate of replacement (say, 20 per cent per thousand years) is posited, this would make it possible to calculate the time depth for an ancestor language which is reconstructed from two or more languages," says Hoenigswald; but almost in the same breath, he wisely suggests that perhaps we should give up the idea of an absolute constant (all the historical evidence at our disposal, as a matter of fact, points to

highly irregular rates of change, with peaks and troughs). Furthermore, glottochronology calls for the elimination of all learned material. This is easy in some instances, extremely difficult in others. French *rare* at once betrays by its form that it is a learned borrowing, but what of Spanish and Italian *raro*? We can surmise that they are learned only by analogy with what happens in French.

Nowhere does Professor Hoenigswald state that it is his purpose to contribute new material to the historical reconstruction of the past, and it is a well known fact that certain modern theories are nothing but restatements, with slight variations, of older beliefs ("Languages in contact," for instance, differs very little from the older substratum, superstratum and adstratum theories). Nevertheless, one or two of the techniques he advocates have certain novel and praiseworthy features, even if they are not altogether original. His demonstration of what amounts to a process of arithmetical proportion in analogical replacement (p. 67) repeats the process demonstrated by this reviewer in his *Italian Language* (Columbia University Press, New York, 1941, p. 87). Most striking of all, however, is the demonstration of classification by overlapping innovations appearing on pp. 152-153. The outstanding feature here is that Hoenigswald predicates classification upon the *sum total* of innovations (or the lack thereof), not on one or two individual phenomena which may be highly picturesque and attention-arresting, but may also mean little in connection with the total picture. Here attention might be called to the reviewer's article "A New Methodology for Romance Classification," *Word*, 5.2.135-146, which was offered as far back as 1949 for the avowed purpose of repressing highly fanciful statements based on only a fraction of the total evidence.

Descriptivists will welcome this book, which gives their terminology and method of presentation a firm foothold in the more traditional area of historical linguistics. Old-line historical linguists may view it with suspicion, and perhaps tend to regard it as an unwelcome intruder. The man who has not had a thorough grounding in the terminology of descriptive and structural linguistics will be unable to advance beyond the first few pages.

MARIO A. PEI

Columbia University

* * *

Awards of Merit

Dr. Karl-Heinz Planitz, Professor of German at Wabash College and President-Elect of the National Federation of Modern Language Teacher's Associations was recently decorated with the Order of Merit of the Federal Republic of Germany for his contribution to the strengthening of friendly relations between the United

States and Germany.

Dr. Theodore Huebener, director of foreign languages in the city schools, recently received a Certificate of Merit from the University of Aquila in Italy for his contributions to Italian-American cultural relations.

* * *